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ABSTRACT

This guide provides procedures and supporting materials for a sex equity workshop aimed at secondary school student leaders that is intended to expand awareness of sexism and to increase sex-affirmative behavior in the educational environment. The guide describes the content, process, and sequential learning experiences for seven sessions. Sessions 1 and 2 are organized to increase student awareness of sexism and sex-role stereotyping and to create a common vocabulary. A simulation experience in Session 3 helps students identify real-life attitudes and roles. Sessions 4-6 emphasize increased knowledge about the issues of sex equity. Session 7 involves application of knowledge about change processes to personal and school life and explains the student's role as change agent. In addition to session-by-session procedures and supporting materials, this guide includes mini-lectures, activity guides, handout materials for the participants (assessment instruments, activity cards, readings, and worksheets), and transparency masters. (KH)

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Student Leader Workshop

FACILITATOR'S GUIDE

CENTER FOR STUDIES OF THE PERSON
San Diego, California

Director
Lynn Stuvé

EXPANDING OPTIONS

EXPANDING

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION/WOMEN'S EDUCATIONAL EQUITY ACT PROGRAM

T.H. Bell, Secretary

ED223969

Developed by the staff of Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a Federal WEEA project of the Center for Studies of the Person

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NOTES TO THE FACILITATOR

EXPANDING OPTIONS provides sex-equity training models for the K-12 school community. The training workshops are designed to expand awareness and knowledge of the effects of sexism and to increase sex-affirmative behavior in the educational environment. The target audience includes teachers (elementary and secondary), students (junior and senior high), student leaders, parents, administrators, counselors, and support staff. Some suggestions for identifying student leaders are given under Instructional Design, below.

The EXPANDING OPTIONS package includes a *Coordinator's Guide* and eight *Facilitator's Guides*. The *Coordinator's Guide* contains information on the development of the workshop model and the evaluation design, as well as a Resources List, including books and other supporting instructional materials. Each *Facilitator's Guide* provides session-by-session procedures and supporting materials. The *Facilitator's Guide* also contains all the Mini-Lectures, Activity Guides, handout materials for the participants (Assessment Instruments, Activity Cards, Readings, and Worksheets), and Transparency Masters called for in the workshop sessions.

FACILITATOR'S GUIDE

This *Student Leader Workshop Facilitator's Guide* describes the content, process, and sequential learning experiences for seven sessions. The session-by-session goals and objectives are achieved by a variety of means, such as large group discussion, small group activities, individual Worksheets, brainstorming, Facilitator-delivered Mini-Lectures, and audiovisual presentations.

Turn to Session 1, first page, and follow along as you read this paragraph. The first page of each session contains the title and goal(s) for that session. The far left column provides an outline of the objectives and major events. The timeline gives an estimated time for each activity or activity group. Use it as a guide, but make adjustments to meet the needs of your participants. Centered on the page are the events, with step-by-step instructions for you, the Facilitator. The next column on the right includes pictographic cues, which highlight major activities. The final column is a checklist of general and instructional materials to be used in the session. Underlined print in this column indicates those Worksheets, Mini-Lectures, Transparency Masters (TMs), Readings, etc., that are included in

the EXPANDING OPTIONS package. All other titles listed are materials to be supplied by the Coordinator or Facilitator. Note that there is a Homework section and a Process Evaluation at the conclusion of each session. Session 5 contains Follow-Up Activities for students who are interested in doing action projects and further exploration. Be sure to provide time in Session 6 to share the results of these activities with all workshop members.

INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN

This workshop, EXPANDING OPTIONS, is designed to move participants from awareness and knowledge to action. This format proved to be very successful during our field-testing activity. We strongly recommend the learning progression of Sessions 1-7 for maximum effectiveness.

Sessions 1 and 2 are organized to increase student awareness of sexism and sex-role stereotyping and to create a common vocabulary. The simulation experience in Session 3 helps students identify real-life attitudes and roles. Sessions 4-6 emphasize increased knowledge about the issues of sex equity. Session 7 involves application to personal and school life and explains the student's role as change agent.

Within each session, activities are organized so that your presentations are followed by group activities that involve student thinking, sharing, and input. This format requires students to take responsibility for their learning and allows you a chance to catch your breath or give individual attention.

Options are given in Sessions 2, 3, and 5. You should decide which option will be best for you and your participants. Note that the simulation games *Encapsulation* and *Pro/Con* should be available through your Coordinator. If not, you must arrange for delivery.

We recommend that you schedule the 10½-hour workshop early in a semester. Workshop sessions can be combined and offered during a weekend, or they can be spread out over a month or two. Try to arrange to have a period of at least three weeks between the first and last sessions to give students time to reflect upon their new awareness and knowledge.

A variety of methods may be used to recruit student leaders. Although the term leader suggests participants drawn from traditional sources such as the student council, honor society, and formal student leadership classes.

it is hoped that Facilitators will recognize nontraditional leadership as well. We recommend that Facilitators brainstorm about selection of student leaders who have the greatest influence in their own school environment.

The ideal number of students ranges from ten to thirty, although some parts of the workshop were field-tested with as many as sixty participants, and with much success. The support of administrators, counseling staff, and teachers will ensure the necessary enrollment to make this workshop a success.

The Facilitator should develop ground rules with the students right away. We suggest the following for class discussion:

- Respect for others' opinions
- Listening and taking turns
- Acceptance of and openness to new ideas
- Consideration of others' feelings

WE RECOMMEND . . .

We recommend that you read the Readings, complete the Worksheets and Activities, and become thoroughly familiar with the Mini-Lecture content, coordinating each one with its accompanying Transparencies. Running a mock workshop with a group of five or six teachers or friends will help get the bugs out. Participation in the Secondary Teacher Workshop is also strongly recommended for those who will be facilitating this workshop. It will provide background information and help establish a support group.

Check with your Coordinator regarding responsibility for the reproduction and assembly of the materials for your workshop. Additional resources should also be made available through your Coordinator.

Whenever possible, co-facilitate sessions with a person of the opposite sex. We used male-female teams to demonstrate that the issue is a human one, affecting both sexes. Due to the sensitivity of the subject matter, some participants felt threatened and responded with anger and defensiveness. The sessions offer ample opportunity to work through this initial resistance, provided that the Facilitator is sensitive and accepting.

The workshop facility should be equipped for audiovisual presentation and have a chalkboard and/or wall space on which to post newsprint. The available space should be conducive to both small and large group interaction.

TO TEST OR NOT TO TEST

Decide whether you will pre- and post-test participants, and adjust workshop times accordingly. Students enjoy seeing personal changes in knowledge and attitude. There are three Assessment Instruments included for pre- and post-testing: What Do You Know About Sex Equity? developed by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments to measure knowledge gain; Adult Rating Scale (ARS), which measures behavior; and Person-Concept Incongruency Scale (PCIS), which measures attitudes. The first test requires 20-30 minutes and records the most changes; the other two measures require about 10 minutes each and show more subtle changes. Answers to the knowledge test and scoring procedures for the other two tests may be found in the *Coordinator's Guide*, pp. 4-5.

Great care should be taken to preserve the anonymity of participants, while permitting a comparison of each person's pre- and post-tests. This may be done by placing all forms in prenumbered envelopes and distributing the envelopes randomly to the participants. Have students write down their numbers in at least <u>two</u> places where they are likely to find them at future meetings, and emphasize the importance of using the numbers on <u>all</u> Process Evaluation Forms. Explain the need for such numbers and make it clear that there is no intent to identify any individual.

The test items on What Do You Know About Sex Equity? are quite difficult and may cause anxiety in some participants. On the pretest, it is wise to emphasize that the items are designed to measure knowledge <u>specific</u> to the workshop. Participants should be reassured that they are not supposed to do very well until <u>after</u> the workshop experience.

FROM THOSE WHO VENTURED

Hope for the best but be prepared for the worst. No matter how well you prepare, it will take longer and be harder than you expect. If anything can go wrong, it will. However, the experience will be worth it--more enriching, expanding, and far-reaching than you could ever imagine. Good luck!

SESSION 1: INTRODUCTION TO SEX EQUITY

Student Leader Workshop

GOAL: TO INCREASE AWARENESS OF SEXISM, BOTH PERSONAL AND SOCIETAL

GENERAL BUSINESS — 5

Discuss meeting times and dates.

Introduce yourself, giving both personal and professional information. Share your personal expectations for the workshop.

State the overall aims of the workshop, as follows:

- *To increase knowledge and awareness of the effects of sex-role stereotyping.*
- *To expand awareness of the influence of sexism on the school, home, friends, adults, society at large (the media), the work world, and language.*
- *To expand aspirations for the future.*

Distribute the Worksheet "Student Leader Workshop Outline" and review the events with students.

Present Session 1 goals and overview.

INTRODUCTIONS — 10

As a get-acquainted and awareness exercise, have participants, in dyads, come to an agreement on two ways males and females are similar, and two ways they are different.

Record the responses on newsprint and save the list for Session 4.

Point out the similarities and differences in their responses. Have students share their perceptions of the responses.

ASSESSMENT (optional pretesting) — 30

Explain, distribute, and administer the Assessment Instruments, What Do You Know About Sex Equity? Adult Rating Scale, and Person-Concept Incongruency Scale.

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

Poster with overall workshop goals

Student Leader Workshop Outline

Poster with Session 1 goals and overview

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS:
What Do You Know About Sex Equity?
Adult Rating Scale
Person-Concept Incongruency Scale

OBJECTIVE #1

Participants will be able to define and give operational examples of sexism in the work world, home, school, society at large (media), and personal relationships.

SEXISM: AWARENESS AND DEFINITIONS

10 Have students form small groups of two to four each to define sexism.

Have them share their definitions for a large group consensus.

10 Present the Mini-Lecture "Sexism: Definition and Dynamics," using the Transparencies and relating the Mini-Lecture to the students' definitions.

IDENTIFICATION OF SEXISM

Conduct a large group brainstorming session on a few examples of sexism in the following areas: the work world, home, school, society at large (media), and personal relationships.

15 Divide the group into triads. Assign each group one or two areas found on the Worksheet, "Where Is Sexism?"

Facilitate triad reports of the examples. Have the groups discuss additional examples.

HOMEWORK

5 For the next session, assign the Reading "Sex Equity Definitions."

Preview the next session.

PROCESS EVALUATION

5 Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."

MINI-LECTURE: Sexism: Definition and Dynamics

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS: Definitions
Dynamics of Sexism

WORKSHEET: Where Is Sexism?

READING: Sex Equity Definitions

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT: Process Evaluation Form

WORKSHEET 1

STUDENT LEADER WORKSHOP OUTLINE

This workshop is designed to increase sex equity awareness. Information will be presented about sex-role socialization, the effects of sex-role stereotyping, and Title IX. Student leaders will have an opportunity to be involved in small group activities, a simulation, and a sex-equity action project.

SESSION 1: INTRODUCTION TO SEX EQUITY

SESSION 2: SOCIALIZATION

SESSION 3: THE ROLES WE PLAY

SESSION 4: HOW SEX ROLES CAN LIMIT

SESSION 5: TITLE IX AND BIAS IN LANGUAGE

SESSION 6: ANDROGYNY

SESSION 7: STUDENT AS CATALYST FOR CHANGE

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT 1

WHAT DO YOU KNOW ABOUT SEX EQUITY?

This Assessment Instrument was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments to accompany the EXPANDING OPTIONS sex equity workshops.

INSTRUCTIONS: *DO NOT WRITE ON THIS FORM. Place all answers on the answer sheet.*

PART 1: LEGAL BACKGROUND

1. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 . . .

   a. applies only to sex discrimination against women in education.
   b. is a state law against sex discrimination.
   c. is a county ordinance against sex discrimination.
   d. is a federal civil rights law prohibiting sex discrimination in education.
   e. Both a and d apply.

2. Under Title IX regulations, it is required that education agencies . . .

   a. take all steps necessary to end sex discrimination.
   b. adopt and publish grievance procedures.
   c. appoint a Title IX coordinator.
   d. file an assurance of compliance with the federal government.
   e. All of the above

3. Which is the clearest example of sex *discrimination* according to Title IX?

   a. Men and women are thought to have some innate differences.
   b. Boys are discouraged by counselors from going into nursing.
   c. Girls are not permitted to take auto mechanics.
   d. Girls and boys are placed in separate sections of a wrestling course.
   e. All of the above

4. Sex *fairness* is shown when . . .

   a. the letter of the Title IX requirements is met.
   b. each person is actively encouraged to do the thing in which he or she has the greatest interest.
   c. a program is mounted to make up for past sex discrimination.
   d. efforts are made to stimulate interest in educational areas that are usually "off limits" to one sex or the other.

5. Which of the practices below are permitted under Title IX?

   a. Separate ranking by sex for admissions
   b. Separate courses for boys and girls
   c. Ability grouping within P.E. classes
   d. Different graduation requirements for males and females
   e. None of these is permitted.

6. Sex *bias* is expressed when . . .

   a. boys are ridiculed for being interested in a dance course.
   b. boys are not allowed to take home economics.
   c. women are paid less than men for the same work.
   d. separate graduation standards are used for males and females.
   e. All of the above

7. A Title IX program that clearly shows *sex-affirmative* actions would include . . .

   a. appointment of a Title IX coordinator who has many other responsibilities.
   b. separate sections of sports classes for both sexes.
   c. active encouragement of women who want to enter executive-level educational positions.
   d. no discouragement of boys who want to take home economics.
   e. Both b and c apply.

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PART 2: CHANGE

1. What is usually the *last* personal change to be made when sexism is effectively reduced?

   a. Blaming others for the problems of sexism
   b. Integration of the needed changes into thought and behavior
   c. Intellectual understanding of the problem
   d. Feelings of guilt and anger
   e. Emotional identification with the opposite sex and a major change in personality

2. The prospect of change is likely to produce . . .

   a. resistance in the form of apathy.
   b. immediate acceptance as a natural process.
   c. a stimulating sense of challenge for nearly everyone.
   d. uneasiness about the unknown.
   e. Both a and d apply.

3. When producing change, one should remember that . . .

   a. each change will have an isolated effect.
   b. one part of a system is independent of the rest.
   c. a change in one part of a system may change things in other parts.
   d. small changes are seldom effective even when added up.
   e. Both a and b apply.

4. Which are the primary roles of a change agent? (Circle all appropriate answers.)

   a. Disrupter
   b. Catalyst
   c. Solution giver
   d. Controller
   e. Finance acquirer
   f. Resource linker

5. A good change plan could include which steps? (Circle all appropriate answers.)

   a. Definition of the problem
   b. Takeover and control of the system

c. Evaluation and follow-up
d. A procedure to minimize knowledge and maximize emotional change
e. A process for implementing the plan
f. Straightforward use of a tried-and-true formula from earlier projects

PART 3: LANGUAGE

1. What is the most accurate statement about text and reference books?

a. Dictionaries and encyclopedias rarely show sexism in their language.
b. One of the least sexist dictionaries has been *American Heritage*.
c. School texts usually show a good balance of references to males and females.
d. Textbooks are generally sex affirmative in their emphasis.
e. Legal texts show little sex bias.

2. Examples of inclusive language are in . . .

a. use of the word *he* to refer to people in general.
b. reference to the office secretaries (female) as *girls*.
c. more frequent use of *he* and *him* than *she* and *her* in school textbooks.
d. use of the word *homemaker*.
e. virtually always showing scientists as males.

3. Identify the phrase that reflects sexist language.

a. The pioneers took their wives and children West.
b. They grew to adulthood.
c. The Smiths are an attractive couple.
d. The supervisor was tough on the workers.
e. She is not the right person for the job.

4. Sex stereotyping is found in which of the following science and math text examples?

a. Jim helped Sally with her math.
b. Jane bought five ribbons for $1.00. How much did each cost?
c. John built two houses for $80,000 each. How much did he spend?
d. Leaders in physics include Einstein, Mach, and Roentgen.
e. All of the above

5. Which is the most preferred form of speech when one is avoiding sexist language?

   a. She was an outstanding sculptress.
   b. The moon landing was a giant leap for mankind.
   c. Both career men and career girls should consider entering the computer field.
   d. He was her Prince Charming.
   e. None of the above is preferred.

6. Our language is structured so that . . .

   a. societal values are not reflected in legal documents.
   b. words such as *he* and *man* when used as general terms are most often interpreted by children to refer equally to both males and females.
   c. "female" words tend to name things that are powerful and active.
   d. "female" words refer to less desirable things as a rule.
   e. Both a and b apply.

PART 4: BIOLOGICAL/ PSYCHOLOGICAL

1. Sex differences in cognitive function make which of the following true?

   a. Adolescent girls have, on the average, higher verbal ability scores.
   b. Tests of analytic ability favor girls.
   c. Spatial visualization averages are higher for adolescent boys.
   d. All of the above.
   e. Only a and c apply.

2. Circle the answers for the statements below that are true.

   a. Males are more resistant to disease than females are.
   b. Females usually have XX and males XY sex chromosome pairs.
   c. Genetic defects are more common in females.
   d. Boys tend to have more muscle tissue than girls do.
   e. Males tend, at every stage of growth, to be larger and stronger than females.
   f. Premenstrual tension is innate among women.
   g. Middle-class American males tend to be more physically aggressive than their female counterparts.
   h. There is clear evidence that in every culture males are more aggressive than their female counterparts.

3. The word *androgyny* implies . . .

   a. neutering of traditional sex roles.
   b. that men take on the traditional sex role of women.
   c. that women take on the traditional sex role of men.
   d. that both sexes are free to assume aspects of both sex roles.
   e. movement toward a homosexual society and away from heterosexuality.

4. Our general concept of mental health for adults tends to be . . .

   a. negatively related to descriptions of healthy females.
   b. positively related to descriptions of healthy females.
   c. negatively related to descriptions of healthy males.
   d. positively related to descriptions of healthy males.
   e. Both a and d apply.

5. Sex hormones . . .

   a. have little to do with the gender of a child.
   b. tightly control the sex role adopted by a child.
   c. are found as androgens only in males.
   d. help produce secondary sex characteristics at puberty.
   e. clearly are more potent than socialization in the development of sex-typed behavior.

PART 5: SOCIALIZATION

1. "All mothers love their children more than fathers do" is an example of . . .

   a. sex bias.
   b. sex focusing.
   c. sex stereotyping.
   d. sex-role socialization.
   e. sex-role identification.

2. Sex-role socialization in schools includes . . .

   a. role models in texts and literature.
   b. differences in teacher response to boys and girls.
   c. differences in teacher expectations for boys and girls.

d. the physical environment of the classroom.
e. All of the above

3. According to the research of Money and Erhardt, when surgery, etc., is used to change the apparent sex of very young children . . .

a. careful socialization leads to good adjustment in the new gender identity.
b. gender identity stays the same as the genetic one in spite of changes in sex-role socialization.
c. some change in gender identity takes place but much confusion remains.
d. the child is likely to become severely emotionally disturbed during adolescence.
e. Both b and d apply.

4. Although males and females overlap greatly on all behavioral patterns, reliable average differences are found that show . . .

a. even as children males are stronger.
b. young girls have wider shoulders than boys do.
c. when social play begins, boys show more aggression than girls do.
d. females are clearly more nurturant than males are in the American middle class.
e. Both c and d apply.

5. When learning sex roles from adult role models in the home . . .

a. girls show more anxiety about their roles than boys do.
b. men spend many hours a week with their children.
c. the role model for girls is less clear than that for boys.
d. boys are more often harshly punished when they deviate from the "male" sex role than are girls when they deviate from the "female" role.
e. mothers teach the "female" sex role but have little to do with teaching the "male" role.

6. Stereotypes of female/male behaviors are . . . (Circle all appropriate answers.)

a. learned almost entirely at home.

b. reinforced by brothers, sisters, and playmates.
c. systematically portrayed in films, on TV, and in other media.
d. vigorously opposed in the typical classroom.
e. seldom found in everyday language.
f. used to assign work and play.
g. mostly learned by casual observation without the need for active reinforcement.

7. Children . . .

a. are often aware of their gender label by age three.
b. do not learn the details of their social sex roles until adolescence.
c. are treated the same, regardless of sex, until age two.
d. (both male and female) are equally valued by most cultures.
e. Both a and b apply.

PART 6: EMPLOYMENT

1. The gap between men's and women's incomes has . . .

a. widened since 1955.
b. shown a steady decrease since 1955.
c. decreased dramatically in the last few years.
d. shown little change over the years.
e. always been quite small for comparable work.

2. Which statements about women's place in the world of work are accurate? (Circle all appropriate answers.)

a. Homemaking is still the full-time job of most women.
b. Most women work only to get luxuries, while their husbands earn enough on which to live well.
c. Four out of five working women are heads of households.
d. On the average, men who have not finished high school earn more than women who graduate from college.
e. On the average, minority women workers earn more than minority men do.

3. Employment for women . . .

   a. has recently shifted toward somewhat better opportunity in professional and technical fields.
   b. will shift by 1985 to lesser percentages in the secretarial and typing fields.
   c. is currently less occupationally segregated than it was 20 years ago.
   d. is moving toward equal pay by 1984.
   e. Both c and d apply.

4. Working women . . .

   a. have median earnings nearly equal to those of men.
   b. are more likely to have more education than women who do not work.
   c. are seldom found in husband/wife families.
   d. mostly work part-time.
   e. Both b and c apply.

5. Which statement is accurate regarding labor force participation?

   a. Women make up 51 percent of the country's labor force.
   b. Middle-aged women are responsible for most of the increase in the female labor force.
   c. In nearly half of all marriages, both husband and wife are wage earners.
   d. Three out of four employed women work full-time.
   e. Both c and d apply.

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What Do You Know About Sex Equity?

Answer Sheet

NAME: _____ Date: ___/___/___

INSTRUCTIONS: Circle the correct answers.

PART 1: LEGAL BACKGROUND	1. a b c d e	5. a b c d e
	2. a b c d e	6. a b c d e
	3. a b c d e	7. a b c d e
	4. a b c d	
PART 2: CHANGE	1. a b c d e	4. a b c d e f
	2. a b c d e	5. a b c d e f
	3. a b c d e	
PART 3: LANGUAGE	1. a b c d e	4. a b c d e
	2. a b c d e	5. a b c d e
	3. a b c d e	6. a b c d e
PART 4: BIOLOGICAL/ PSYCHOLOGICAL	1. a b c d e	4. a b c d e
	2. a b c d e f g h	5. a b c d e
	3. a b c d e	
PART 5: SOCIALIZATION	1. a b c d e	5. a b c d e
	2. a b c d e	6. a b c d e f g
	3. a b c d e	7. a b c d e
	4. a b c d e	
PART 6: EMPLOYMENT	1. a b c d e	4. a b c d e
	2. a b c d e	5. a b c d e
	3. a b c d e	

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT 2

ADULT RATING SCALE

NAME_____ AGE_____

SEX: M_____ F_____ DATE:_____

INSTRUCTIONS: *Rate or characterize yourself according to the following scale. Choose a response from 1-5 (very seldom to very frequently) which best indicates how often you choose to do the thing that is described. Place the number in the blank at the left of each item.*

1	2	3	4	5
VERY SELDOM	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	VERY FREQUENTLY

_____ 1. YOU ARE ACTIVE AND ENERGETIC. *EXAMPLE: You are vigorous and work hard; you are busy and on the move.*

_____ 2. YOU ENGAGE OTHERS IN HELPING YOU. *EXAMPLE: You seek out and get others to show you how to do things; you look for and receive advice.*

_____ 3. YOU PLEASE OTHERS. *EXAMPLE: You are cooperative and conforming; you do what others want you to do.*

_____ 4. YOU STAND UP FOR YOUR RIGHTS. *EXAMPLE: You act assertively; you do not react timidly or shyly.*

_____ 5. YOU BUILD AND FIX THINGS. *EXAMPLE: You put things together; you figure out how to put broken things in working order.*

_____ 6. YOU MODEL AUTHORITATIVE ROLES. *EXAMPLE: You help authorities and try to enforce rules; you imitate the behavior of those in authority.*

1	2	3	4	5
VERY SELDOM	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	VERY FREQUENTLY

_____ 7. YOU ARE DARING AND ADVENTURESOME. *EXAMPLE: You attempt physical feats; you take chances in your daily activities.*

_____ 8. YOU EXPRESS AFFECTION. *EXAMPLE: You hug and kiss others; you are tender and loving with others.*

_____ 9. YOU ARE RESPONSIVE TO AUTHORITY. *EXAMPLE: You are quick to be obedient; you do not talk back to or question those in authority.*

_____ 10. YOU ARE SENSITIVE TO OTHERS' FEELINGS. *EXAMPLE: You treat others in terms of their needs; you are not critical of others.*

_____ 11. YOU SHOW STRENGTH AND PHYSICAL PROWESS. *EXAMPLE: You pick up heavy things; you challenge others to feats of strength and speed.*

_____ 12. YOU ARE CAREFUL IN APPEARANCE. *EXAMPLE: You take time to keep clean and neat; you call attention to your appearance.*

_____ 13. YOU TAKE CARE OF OTHERS. *EXAMPLE: You comfort others when they are hurt; you help others with their problems.*

_____ 14. YOU MAKE YOUR OWN DECISIONS. *EXAMPLE: You do not depend on others in deciding what to do; you are decisive in making choices.*

_____ 15. YOU ARE COMPETENT IN DEALING WITH THE ENVIRONMENT. *EXAMPLE: You understand how things work; you are persistent and curious in finding solutions to problems.*

_____ 16. YOU ARE PHYSICALLY AGGRESSIVE. *EXAMPLE: You push or hit back if another hits or pushes you; you use force if you can't get something.*

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_____ 17. YOU DISPLAY MANNERS. *EXAMPLE: You treat others very politely and act courteous and well behaved.*

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1	2	3	4	5
VERY SELDOM	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	VERY FREQUENTLY

_____ 18. YOU PARTICIPATE IN SPORTS AND ACTIVE GAMES. *EXAMPLE: You play strenuous games; you take part in rough competition.*

_____ 19. YOU KEEP THINGS NEAT AND ORDERLY. *EXAMPLE: You pick up your things and put them away.*

_____ 20. YOU LEAD OTHERS. *EXAMPLE: You initiate and organize activities; you influence others' decisions.*

The Adult Rating Scale was developed by ROBERT C. NEWMAN, Ph.D. All rights reserved.

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT 3

PERSON-CONCEPT INCONGRUENCY SCALE

NAME_____ AGE_____

SEX: M_____ F_____ DATE:_____

INSTRUCTIONS: *Below are 16 pairs of words with 7 spaces between each pair. Read each pair of words. Choose the space that best describes how you see women. For example, if you see women as "extremely friendly," check the far left space. If you see women as "extremely unfriendly," check the far right space. If you feel women are somewhere in between, then check the space that best describes your response.*

THE WAY I SEE WOMEN (1 2 3 4 5 6 7)		DO NOT MARK HERE F	DO NOT MARK HERE F^2
Friendly	Unfriendly	E__*	__
Weak	Strong	P__	__
Motivated	Aimless	A__*	__
Cruel	Kind	E__	__
Deep	Shallow	P__*	__
Slow	Fast	A__	__
Happy	Sad	E__*	__
Soft	Hard	P__	__
Sociable	Unsociable	E__*	__
Excitable	Calm	A__	__
Bad	Good	E__	__
Free	Constrained	P__*	__
Passive	Active	A__	__
Wise	Foolish	E__*	__
Humorous	Serious	P__	__
Complex	Simple	A__*	__

Total F ___

Total F^2 ___

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

On this page please rate how you would <u>like</u> women to be.

THE WAY I WOULD LIKE WOMEN TO BE (1 2 3 4 5 6 7)		F_I	F_I-F	$(F_I$-F$)^2$
Friendly _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Unfriendly	E__*	__	__
Weak _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Strong	P__	__	__
Motivated _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Aimless	A__*	__	__
Cruel _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Kind	E__	__	__
Deep _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Shallow	P__*	__	__
Slow _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Fast	A__	__	__
Happy _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Sad	E__*	__	__
Soft _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Hard	P__	__	__
Sociable _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Unsociable	E__*	__	__
Excitable _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Calm	A__	__	__
Bad _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Good	E__	__	__
Free _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Constrained	P__*	__	__
Passive _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Active	A__	__	__
Wise _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Foolish	E__*	__	__
Humorous _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Serious	P__	__	__
Complex _ _ _ _ _ _ _	Simple	A__*	__	__

Total F_I ____

Total F_I-F ____

Total $(F_I$-F$)^2$ ____

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

INSTRUCTIONS: *Below are 16 pairs of words. There are 7 spaces between each pair. Read each pair of words. Choose the space which best describes how you see men. For example, if you see men as "extremely friendly," check the far left space. If you see men as "extremely unfriendly," check the far right space. If you feel men are somewhere in between, then check the space which best describes your response.*

THE WAY I SEE MEN

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

		M	M^2	F-M	$(F-M)^2$
Friendly	Unfriendly	E__*	__	__	__
Weak	Strong	P__	__	__	__
Motivated	Aimless	A__*	__	__	__
Cruel	Kind	E__	__	__	__
Deep	Shallow	P__*	__	__	__
Slow	Fast	A__	__	__	__
Happy	Sad	E__*	__	__	__
Soft	Hard	P__	__	__	__
Sociable	Unsociable	E__*	__	__	__
Excitable	Calm	A__	__	__	__
Bad	Good	E__	__	__	__
Free	Constrained	P__*	__	__	__
Passive	Active	A__	__	__	__
Wise	Foolish	E__*	__	__	__
Humorous	Serious	P__	__	__	__
Complex	Simple	A__*	__	__	__

Total M ___

Total M^2 ___

Total F-M ___

Total $(F-M)^2$ ___

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

On this page please rate how you would <u>like</u> men to be.

THE WAY I WOULD LIKE MEN TO BE (1 2 3 4 5 6 7)		M_I	M_I-M	$(M_I-M)^2$	F_I-M_I	$(F_I-M_I)^2$
Friendly	Unfriendly	E*				
Weak	Strong	P				
Motivated	Aimless	A*				
Cruel	Kind	E				
Deep	Shallow	P*				
Slow	Fast	A				
Happy	Sad	E*				
Soft	Hard	P				
Sociable	Unsociable	E*				
Excitable	Calm	A				
Bad	Good	E				
Free	Constrained	P*				
Passive	Active	A				
Wise	Foolish	E*				
Humorous	Serious	P				
Complex	Simple	A*				

Total M_I ____

Total M_I-M ____

Total $(M_I-M)^2$ ____

Total F_I-M_I ____

Total $(F_I-M_I)^2$ ____

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MINI-LECTURE: SEXISM: DEFINITION AND DYNAMICS

This Mini-Lecture provides an introduction to key terms and issues regarding sexism. Information on the nature of sexism in our society and the way it is perpetuated is included.

SEXISM: A DEFINITION

Sexism is subtle and pervasive. It affects everyone, males as well as females. Sexism is not a woman's issue; it is a human one. Narrowly defined sex roles limit options in every area of our lives. Because most of us are largely unaware of the subtle existence of sexism, the focus of the next series of sessions will be to take a look at sexism as it manifests itself in our personal as well as professional lives, and to identify strategies to overcome its negative effects.

[Display the Transparency "Definitions."]

Sexism may be defined as *any attitude or action that stereotypes or discriminates against a person on the basis of sex--whether intentional or unintentional*.

SEXISM IS USUALLY UNINTENTIONAL

Discrimination is often unintentional. We have so absorbed our culture's assumptions and expectations about how males and females should be that we are unaware of their influence on our interactions with others. An example of this is the use of the term "room mother." The word assumes that this duty is a female function and unintentionally excludes men. Teachers would be only too glad to have a *room parent* who is *male*. Decisions and assumptions that use sex as a criterion for assignment of job responsibilities, participation in active or quiet play, or determination of academic performance are other examples of unintentional sexism.

We all have sexist attitudes and act in sexist ways. Being *nonsexist* means that our attitudes and assumptions about ourselves and others are not based on stereotypes about men and women, but are based on individual capabilities and interests. It doesn't mean that women shouldn't be homemakers,

or that men shouldn't be the major providers. Being nonsexist means that roles will be assumed according to individual needs, desires, and talents.

SEXISM IS INSTITUTIONAL

In American institutions, which are supposedly based on the premise of "equality for all," equal participation of females and males is not a reality. Although there are numerous laws supporting "equal opportunity" for groups who have been discriminated against in the past, institutions change slowly. Currently, every major institution in our society is dominated by men: government, law, education, health care, defense, industry, religion, and other spheres of activity. In respect to sexism in education, Title IX prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex. Yet there are educational practices, despite Title IX compliance efforts, that are sexist.

Athletic programs for males, for example, receive more support and promotion than programs for females. Also, career guidance practices and testing services differentiate on the basis of sex.

DYNAMICS OF SEXISM

Sexism, like any other "ism," is self-perpetuating. This self-perpetuating dynamic can be visualized as a cycle of learning and reinforcement. [Display the Transparency "Dynamics of Sexism" to explain the following example.]

Let's use the stereotype "hot-tempered redheads" as an example of this dynamic.

- Experience: A person with red hair flares up in anger.
- Learning: This person is angered easily and has red hair.
- Generalization: People with red hair are hot-tempered (the generalization becomes the stereotype).
- Prejudgment: Next time you encounter a redhead, you expect her or him to get angry easily. Prejudices distort our perception and experience.
- Behavior That Discriminates: As you expect redheads to get angry, you act differently with them or avoid interactions with them altogether.

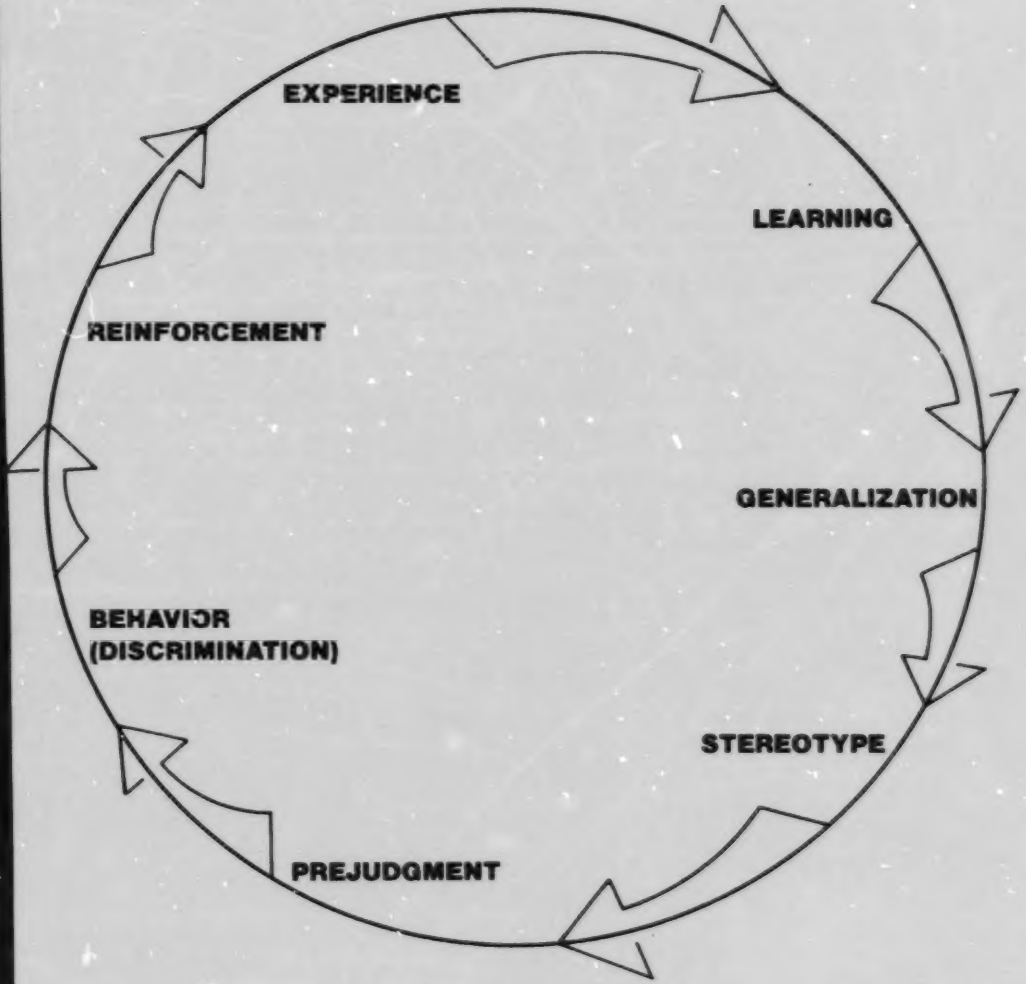
- Reinforcement (Selective Ignoring): Whenever you see a redhead get angry, you make a mental note of the behavior, even though perhaps only one of many redheads you see acts that way. We tend to "see" or notice the behavior we expect. [Have the group give examples.]

DEFINITIONS

SEXISM ANY ATTITUDE OR ACTION THAT STEREOTYPES OR DISCRIMINATES AGAINST A PERSON ON THE BASIS OF SEX--WHETHER INTENTIONAL OR UNINTENTIONAL

SEX EQUITY ATTITUDES OR ACTIONS THAT ENCOURAGE INDIVIDUALS TO DEVELOP AND ACHIEVE THEIR OPTIMAL POTENTIAL AS HUMAN BEINGS RATHER THAN AS MEMBERS OF A SPECIFIC GENDER GROUP

DYNAMICS OF SEXISM



WORKSHEET 2

WHERE IS SEXISM?

INSTRUCTIONS: *Brainstorm examples of sexism in each of the following areas.*

	FEMALE	MALE
WORK WORLD		
HOME AND FAMILY		
SCHOOL		

SOCIETY AT LARGE		
PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS		

READING 1

SEX EQUITY DEFINITIONS

Use the following definitions as a basis for discussions during the EXPANDING OPTIONS Workshop.

SEXISM	Any attitude or action that stereotypes or discriminates against a person on the basis of sex--whether intentional or unintentional
SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPE	A narrowly defined "masculine" or "feminine" behavior or role based on society's expectations that males and females are "naturally" different
SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION	The process by which sex-typed behaviors are taught and reinforced by society through socialization agents, i.e., home, school, peers, institutions, media
ANDROGYNY	From the Greek roots "andr-" and "gyne," meaning male and female; indicates a balanced expression of "masculine" and "feminine" traits to allow each sex the full range of human characteristics needed for individual actualization
GENDER ROLE	Everything a person says or does to indicate to others and self the degree to which that person is male or female
GENDER IDENTITY	The internalized image of oneself as male or female and the internal standards for judging sex-appropriate behaviors
SEX EQUITY	Attitudes or actions that encourage individuals to develop and achieve their optimal potential as human beings rather than as members of a specific gender group

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT 4

PROCESS EVALUATION FORM

This Process Evaluation Form was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INSTRUCTIONS: *To assess the effectiveness of the session, please circle the number that best indicates your response.*

1.	The organization of the session was:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 excellent poor
2.	The objectives of the session were:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 clearly evident vague
3.	The work of the facilitator(s) was:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 excellent poor
4.	The ideas and activities presented were:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 very interesting dull
5.	The coverage was:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 adequate inadequate
6.	My attendance at this session should prove:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 very beneficial of no benefit
7.	How involved were you in what went on in the session?	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 very involved not involved
8.	How much do you feel you gave to the group?	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 a great deal very little

9. Overall, I consider this session: 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
excellent poor

Additional comments and/or questions: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

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SESSION 2: SOCIALIZATION

Student Leader Workshop

GOAL: TO UNDERSTAND THE IMPACT OF THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS ON MALES AND FEMALES

GENERAL BUSINESS	5	Review the first session, inviting participants to share ideas and questions. Present Session 2 goals and overview.	 large group	Name tags Sign-in sheet Chalkboard Newsprint Masking tape Markers Overhead projector Poster with Session 2 goals and overview
		OBJECTIVE #1 *Participants will be able to identify at least two socializing agents.*		
SOCIALIZATION: LEARNING TO BE MALE OR FEMALE	5	Review the Activity Guide "Value Voting: Differing Opinions" and select approximately ten appropriate statements. Conduct this as a warm-up activity.		ACTIVITY GUIDE: Value Voting: Differing Opinions
	15	Give the Mini-Lecture "Sex Roles and the Socialization Process." Have participants brainstorm a list of socialization agents and record the list on newsprint. Then show the Transparency "Society and the Individual."	 mini-lecture	MINI-LECTURE Sex Roles and the Socialization Process
		OBJECTIVE #2 *Participants will list three role expectations for males and three for females.*	 transparency	TRANSPARENCY: Society and the Individual

HOW SEX-ROLE EXPECTATIONS SHAPE US	45	Preview the film *Men's Lives*. If appropriate, show the film to students, or select an appropriate film substitute.	film	FILM: *Men's Lives* Projector Screen
	10	Have students identify major themes of male and female role expectations. Discuss the following questions: ■ *What are the costs and rewards of male role expectations and female role expectations?* ■ *How do we learn our roles? How are they reinforced?* ■ *Do young people growing up today have the same pressure to conform as young people ten years ago did?*	large group	
HOMEWORK	5	Assign the Reading "Sex Roles and the Socialization Process" for the next session. Preview the next session.	homework	READING: Sex Roles and the Socialization Process
PROCESS EVALUATION	5	Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."	evaluation	ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT: Process Evaluation Form

ACTIVITY: VALUE VOTING: DIFFERING OPINIONS

This activity, adapted from materials in the *Project Awareness Training Manual*, encourages participants to think about the psychological and economic results of sexism. It gives them a chance to express their own opinions while getting a sense of the range of values held by other group members.

INSTRUCTIONS: *Ahead of the session, choose statements from the following lists that you feel would be appropriate for the participant group.*

Have participants seat themselves so they can see everyone present. Explain that they will listen as you read statements on psychological and economic aspects of being male or female. Ask them to interpret statements as best they can, and then "vote"--giving their initial reaction to each statement.

Explain the procedure for "voting":

- *"Thumbs up" signals "I agree."*
- *"Thumbs down" signals "I disagree."*
- *Arms spread wide in a shrugging gesture means "I don't know," or "maybe yes, maybe no," or "sometimes yes, sometimes no."*
- *Arms folded across body means "I don't want to say."*

If there is disagreement on any of the statements, you might want to pause for a brief discussion by saying, for example, "I see some disagreement here. Would someone who voted 'yes' give her or his reason? Someone who voted 'no'?"

LIST A: PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS

1. The way things are now, it's better to be a man than a woman.
2. Women shouldn't want to change things because they have the best deal now.

3. It's OK for a girl to play on a male team if she's a good athlete.

4. Men should make the important decisions because men think, but women act on their emotions.

*5. It's OK for a woman to be assertive.

*6. It's OK for a woman to be aggressive.

7. It's OK for a boy to cry.

*8. It's OK for a man to cry.

*9. It's important to me that a man act like a "real man" and that a woman act like a "real woman."

*10. A woman should not compete with a man because it damages his ego.

11. I often act in a way that a person of my sex "isn't supposed to."

12. I get mad when people tell me that how I act isn't "right" for my sex.

13. Men should be more honest about their feelings toward other people.

*14. Men should be more open with other people about their own inadequacies.

15. Women are less self-confident than men.

16. Men should pretend to know more than they really do, in order to appear "professional."

17. Men should pretend to be able to do more than they really can, in order to appear successful.

18. It is hard for women to do their best when they are competing with men.

19. Men like women who are followers, not leaders.

---

*Recommended for brief discussion if disagreement arises.

20. Women like to rely on others when there are decisions to make.

21. To work effectively, women need more encouragement and approval than men.

22. Women are more easily taken advantage of than men.

23. Women lose their sex appeal as they get older, whereas men don't.

24. Women lose their good looks as they get older, whereas men don't.

*25. Boys and girls should be brought up in the same way.

26. Sex stereotyping has damaging effects on girls' views of themselves.

27. Sex stereotyping has damaging effects on boys' views of themselves.

*28. My school channels girls and boys into sex-stereotyped personality and behavior roles.

LIST B: ECONOMIC ASPECTS

1. I think a woman's place is in the home.

2. A woman should be willing to leave her job to follow her husband's job.

*3. A man should be willing to leave his job to follow his wife's job.

*4. It's a woman's responsibility to take time off from her job to raise children.

*5. It's a man's responsibility to take care of his wife and children.

*6. Husbands and wives should have equal responsibility for child care.

*7. Husbands and wives should have equal responsibility for household maintenance.

---

*Recommended for brief discussion if disagreement arises.

*8. Husbands and wives should have equal responsibility for wage earning.

9. I wish I didn't have to work full-time, so I could spend more time with my family and/or friends.

10. I wish I didn't have to work full-time, so I could have more time to myself.

*11. Life would be better for all of us if there were more part-time jobs available.

12. I have to support myself (and my children).

13. It's important to me that I know I'm able to support myself (and my children).

14. My father expected me to have a serious commitment to a job.

15. My mother expected me to have a serious commitment to a job.

16. My mother worked outside our home when I was younger.

17. My father took a lot of responsibility for housework and child care when I was younger.

18. Most women aren't very capable--they should leave the difficult jobs to men.

19. Women who work outside their homes really want to be men.

20. Men and women should be paid equally for the same work.

*21. Men and women should be paid equally for equivalent work.

22. A woman shouldn't take a job that pays more than her husband's job.

*23. All jobs should be open to both women and men.

*24. A woman can do most everything on the job that a man can do.

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77

*Recommended for brief discussion if disagreement arises.

25. A man can do most everything on the job that a woman can do.

26. I am doing a job that isn't traditional for my sex.

27. I would consider doing a job that isn't traditional for my sex.

*28. Schools should encourage both girls and boys to consider all kinds of job options.

*29. My school channels girls and boys into traditional job choices.

---

*Recommended for brief discussion if disagreement arises.

MINI-LECTURE: SEX ROLES AND THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

This mini-lecture provides basic information concerning sex role learning. It includes definitions of key terms and a discussion of family and school as primary agents of socialization.

SEX ROLES AND STEREOTYPING

By the age of three, children know their sex roles. A sex role is a set of behaviors and expectations taught and reinforced by society. Concepts of "masculinity" and "femininity" vary from culture to culture, as do sex-role expectations and responsibilities. Many people assume that sex roles are related to inherent differences between females and males, but researchers have found little evidence to support this assumption. In this session we will look at the "how" of sex-role socialization, or *learning*.

Our roles as female and male reflect an outward statement of our *gender identity*. When a gender label limits development to narrowly defined behavior or characteristics, we call that *stereotyping*. The consequences are damaging and stifling to individual potential and talent.

Researchers have found that sex roles are acquired in the following ways:

- Through the influence and imitation of *role models*
- As a result of selective *reinforcement* of sex-appropriate behaviors
- Through the conceptual *understanding* of masculine and feminine behaviors, and the conscious choice by the individual to conform to the appropriate roles

AGENTS OF SOCIALIZATION

Sex-role socialization, or the teaching of sex-role behaviors, is carried out by parents, teachers, literature and textbooks, peers, social institutions, and the media. Every part of a society teaches individuals to conform to cultural expectations. The socialization process is ongoing, as society dictates the parameters for proper behaviors for every stage of

our lives, from childhood to old age. [Use the Transparency "Society and the Individual" to demonstrate.] The following lists illustrate ways in which the family and school function as primary agents:

SCHOOL	HOME
■ instructional programs, such as course titles, unequal funding of athletic programs, unequal treatment in guidance and career planning	■ parental expectations and behaviors
■ differential staffing patterns	■ role models--adults, siblings, peers
■ classroom management	■ parent-assigned activities and responsibilities
■ teacher expectations and behaviors	■ television and children's literature, including fairy tales
■ instructional materials	■ toys and games

[Have participants suggest other examples.] As we become aware of the circular pattern of sex-role reinforcement, we can intervene to stimulate each student to reach full individual development.

SOCIETY AND THE INDIVIDUAL

FAMILY

PARENTS
Role models
Expectations
Discipline

SIBLINGS
Birth order

ACTIVITIES
Responsibilities
Toys and games
Recreation
Books

PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT
Colors/decoration
Space
Clothes

POTENTIALITIES

TENDENCIES

PHYSICAL FORM

SOCIETY AT LARGE

CULTURE
Heritage
History
Ethics

COMMUNICATION
Language
Art, music, literature
Folk tales
Media (TV, movies)

INSTITUTIONS
Government (law, politics, participation)
Religion (morality)
Economics (class structure, employment)

RECREATION
Leisure

SCHOOL

TEACHERS
Role models
Expectations
Discipline

PEERS

CURRICULUM
Course requirements
Instructional materials
Athletic programs

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT
Staffing
School policies

COUNSELING
Testing
Career guidance

READING 2

SEX ROLES AND THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

This Reading was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INTRODUCTION

How many times have you heard someone turn to another person and with a knowing look say, "Just like a man" or "Just like a woman"? Such expressions point out our cultural expectations concerning the ways males and females should act. And, until recently, these expectations were quite narrow and inflexible. One's sex was a major criterion for assigning tasks and maintaining social order. But today, many people are questioning the value of some sex-typed roles and behaviors. In the worlds of work, sports, and personal relationships, the differences between male and female roles are no longer as rigidly defined as in the past.

WHAT IS SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION?

Sex-role socialization is the teaching of sex-typed behaviors. It is a principal means for preparing young people to fit a culture's preconceived adult roles. Often these roles do not take into consideration the natural talents and interests of the individual.

We have been raised to believe that males and females are different, even opposites, as is reflected in the phrase "the opposite sex." It is easy to list qualities that illustrate these conceptual differences. Men should be brave, strong and intelligent. They should hide their feelings and control rather than cooperate. They should also be financially successful and dedicated to their work. In contrast, women should be supportive, soft, and intuitive. They should work outside the home only when absolutely necessary.

Socialization Agents

Our social institutions, such as schools, the government, the legal system, and religious groups, teach and reinforce these stereotypical ideal male and female roles. Language and the media portray glamorized images of the ideal male and the ideal female. The individual's acceptance and modeling of these sex-role ideals will strongly affect expectations of self and others, as well as career aspirations and achievements. Socialization agents also include parents, teachers, reading materials, peers, and toys.

WHAT IS A SEX ROLE?

A *sex role* (sometimes referred to as *gender role*) is a set of behaviors and expectations that are taught and reinforced by society. Through verbal and nonverbal messages, the young child is rewarded for appropriate behaviors, a reward that reinforces the sex role. These behaviors and expectations are internalized by the child, becoming a part of her or his sex or gender identity. *Gender identity*, then, may be described as the internalized image of oneself as being either female or male and the internalized standards for judging self and others. Initially, a child learns appropriate gender identity through interaction with significant adults.

Sex Roles Are Learned

Although the American culture has consistently maintained that males and females are different, researchers have found little evidence in our society to support the theory that sex roles are based on inherent differences between the sexes. In every culture, different sex-role expectations and responsibilities exist for each sex, but anthropologists have found that sex roles vary greatly from society to society. Margaret Mead and others have found instances of societies where some sex-role behaviors are the reverse of those of Western cultures.

Sex-role behaviors are learned. This is the reason that concepts of "masculinity" and "femininity" vary from culture to culture, as sex roles dictate how individuals should act. It is now felt that the interaction of both nature and nurture (genes and the environment) shapes the individual. (See the Reading "Biological Aspects of Sex Differences.")

How Are Sex Roles Learned?

Psychologists believe that by the time children are three, they know their gender labels (Kagen, 1969). By the time they reach school age, they are aware of which sex they are and what behavior patterns and psychological characteristics are expected of them (Kohlberg, 1966). Such expectations are communicated by both adults and peers.

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There are differing theories concerning how a child perceives and learns appropriate sex-role behaviors. Three significant theories, summarized below, attempt to explain how sex roles are learned. These theories have had considerable impact upon child-rearing and educational practices.

Psychoanalytic Theory

The Freudian and psychoanalytic theories of gender learning are largely related to Freud's belief that both males and females go through stages of "psychosexual" development, and the main source of conflict for the individual is to resolve his or her attachments to and desire for the parent of the opposite sex. At the same time, the psychoanalytic theory emphasizes that the major process for learning sex roles is through the imitation of the same-sex parent, or role modeling. Freud endorsed the view that the pattern of psychosexual development and the development of sex roles was normal, innate, and instinctual (anatomy is destiny), and that all deviations were abnormal.

Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory (Mischel, 1970; Bandura and Walters, 1963) tends to de-emphasize biology. Instead it stresses the role of positive and negative reinforcement in the learning of sex-typed behaviors. According to the social learning theorists, sex roles are learned through reinforcement, modeling, and imitation. The individual learns not only on the basis of the consequences of her or his behavior, but also by observing the consequences of the behavior of others. This is called "vicarious" learning or indirect reinforcement. For example, when a young boy sees a classmate being ridiculed for behaving like a "sissy" or when a girl is praised before her friends for neatness, other children learn by observation how they should behave.

Parents are particularly important in the social learning theory. Young children imitate the parent of the same sex (as well as same-sex siblings) and are reinforced for this imitation. In later years, teachers, the media, and books show specific behaviors that are clearly differentiated as more appropriate for females or for males.

Cognitive Theory

Kohlberg (1966) has developed a theory of sex typing based on cognitive development of the individual. His theories have been influenced by the work of Piaget, the French educator. Kohlberg believes that the individual first gains a concept of appropriate male and female behaviors through observa-

tion, and then tries to behave in the same manner. An example of the way this works is offered by Jerome Kagan (1969):

> A child learns sex-role standards the way he [*sic*] has learned that certain objects are called boys and men; others girls and women. He learns the definition by noting what they do, how they look, and what they wear, and by listening and watching as others discuss the sexes. The categorization of human beings into the two sexes, usually in place by two-and-a-half years, is one of the earliest conceptual classifications a child makes.

All three theories hold that much in the development of sex roles is learned behavior that starts at an early age. Most authorities believe that these theories highlight three important aspects of sex-role learning, although no one theory covers them all. Sex-role identity is believed to be acquired by (1) the influence and imitation of role models (psychoanalytic), (2) the selective reinforcement of sex-appropriate behaviors (social learning), and (3) the conceptual understanding of masculine and feminine behaviors, followed by the conscious choice by the individual to conform to the appropriate roles (cognitive).

WHAT IS SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING?

Stereotyping means attributing to a group the narrow characteristics of only a few. As a result of stereotyping, ethnic jokes, comments about dumb blondes, and ideas about football jocks exist. Sex-role stereotypes are transmitted through the socialization process, exposing males and females to myopic concepts of masculinity and femininity. The results may be quite damaging for individuals.

For example, if a person has several male friends who are good at fixing cars and generalizes this talent to all males, trouble can develop. This person may become a ready victim for unethical mechanics, assuming that because they are males, they are capable of fixing cars well. The person may assume that his or her son should be able to fix machines, regardless of the son's interests. Assumptions about what people can or cannot do, based on what sex they are, are misleading and can have negative effects, especially where children are involved. Fortunately, many people have begun to realize that rigid sex-role stereotypes are dysfunctional in today's changing society.

HOME AND FAMILY

PARENTS AS SOCIALIZATION AGENTS

Parents have the first and probably most enduring effect in a child's life--they are the child's primary *socialization agents*. Parent/child interactions teach *gender identity* and reinforce *sex-appropriate behaviors*. Parents, determining the content of the child's environment exclusively for the first five years, often have the most significant continuing impact on the child's self-expectations.

Parents and family members set the stage for socialization. Culturally shaped behavioral norms are established even before a child is born. In most cultures, male offspring are more valued for reasons such as the continuance of the family name and the economic status associated with the provider role. Parental expectations regarding future roles--becoming a doctor, farmworker, homemaker, or carrying on the family business--govern parent/child interactions.

Concerning sex-role socialization, one researcher, Ellen Mintz, has stated that the extent to which parents teach stereotyped sex roles depends on their own concept of "masculine" and "feminine" qualities and behaviors. Narrow and rigid definitions of masculine and feminine will limit children's experience--they will see and imitate only these narrow roles. Parents will selectively reinforce the kinds of behaviors which they consider appropriate.

Reinforcement of Sex Roles

An infant's room typically contains many subtle cues to the child's gender identity. The selection of pink or blue gives the family members and others ideas about how they should act with the baby. Infant boys are tossed in the air and played with actively, while infant girls are more likely to be pampered or treated gently.

Michael Lewis (1972) found that both mothers and fathers respond to boy infants in one way and girl infants in another. He has found that mothers talk to and look at infant girls more than boys, but touch boys more often up to six months of age. However, by 13 months of age, boys play more independently than girls and have less physical contact with their mothers. Lewis related these findings to the differing cultural expectations for males and females. He concludes the following:

> The motive [for differential interaction between mothers and infants] appears to be cultural; mothers believe that boys should be more independent than girls and that they should be encouraged to explore and master their world.

Parents may structure activities so that males and females in the family learn to fit traditional "male" and "female" roles and learn only sex-stereotyped skills. For example, requiring an older sister to tend younger children while males are assigned yard work reinforces traditional male/female division of tasks in the home, and limits both male development of nurturing behaviors and female development of strength and stamina. Punishing "brother" for hitting "sister" and dismissing "sister's" behavior when she hits him back reinforce the idea that males should protect females. Other examples of differential activities promoted by parents include praising a son for his competition and achievement in sports and encouraging daughters to be involved in dancing or skating, relatively non-competitive sports.

Toys and Games

The choice of toys and activities plays a large part in the reinforcement of traditional sex-typed roles. Concerning the types of toys available, a report by Ms. Magazine found the following (Porgrebin, 1975):

- "Masculine" toys are more varied and expensive, and are viewed as relatively complex, active, and social.
- "Neutral" toys are viewed as most creative and educational, with boys receiving the most intricate items.
- "Feminine" toys are seen as most simple, passive, and solitary.

Stereotypical social values are at work in the production of sex-typed toys. Values and skills taught by "masculine" toys encourage males to solve complex problems and play at active roles of truck driver, fire fighter, or pilot. Females are most often taught skills in cooking and mothering--caring for baby dolls, washing clothes, or dressing fashion dolls. The only imaginative toys for girls are crafts. Toys obviously teach and reflect stereotypical adult roles and behaviors and have some relationship to cognitive development.

Role Models in the Home

Children learn much about male and female roles, responsibilities, and relationships from observing significant role models, chiefly parents. Identification with the parent of the same sex and her or his feelings about the marriage relationship may influence an offspring's concept of the ideal relationship and partner. Children also learn how to be parents from these early experiences.

Some studies have shown that girls learn more about their roles than boys do. This is probably because mothers usually spend more time in the home and are more involved in child care and household chores than fathers. Girls who are raised by mothers who do not work full-time outside the home are more aware of the female roles. Boys, on the other hand, do not get the same picture of their fathers' daily activities.

Evidence indicates that boys experience more anxiety in conforming to their sex role than girls do. This appears to be a result of the absence or near absence of male role models in the home. This anxiety is partially due to the lower tolerance of "unmasculine" behaviors in boys than of "unfeminine" or tomboyish behaviors in girls. Hartley, an expert in sex-role socialization, has noted that boys are expected to conform to social notions of what is "manly" very early, and that their conformance is reinforced much more vigorously than girls' conformance to sex-role stereotypes. In fact, a little boy's conformance may be reinforced quite harshly, impressing him with the danger of deviating from his sex role before he fully understands what it is.

Because young boys lack male role models in the home, clear ideas of how to behave must be inferred and observed from the media, peers, and/or siblings. In the media, particularly television, these images are often distorted and emphasize physical strength, aggression, and lack of care for others. Even educational programs such as "Sesame Street" portray stereotypical images of females and males. The effect of all these television models has been well documented in recent years. Children also imitate older siblings of the same sex and are reinforced vicariously by observing disciplinary actions that result from sibling or peer behaviors.

SUMMARY

Males are rarely given the opportunity to observe fathers in parenting and nurturant roles. Few men spend more than an occasional hour in the evening and an afternoon on the weekends with their children. The stereotype has been that fathers should be primarily concerned with providing financial

security for the family and serve as the authority in the home. Mothers, on the other hand, are the ones who teach, guide, nurture, and support children, in addition to numerous other tasks. Thus, nurturance is seen as a feminine quality and is a behavior discouraged in boys. (A good source of additional information on this subject is David and Brannon's *The Forty-nine Percent Majority: The Male Sex Role.*)

EDUCATION

DIFFERENTIAL TREATMENT

Young people spend a large chunk of their lives in educational institutions. Schools, reflecting the values of society, play a major role in transmitting standards of behavior to males and females. The dynamics of differential treatment of the sexes are complex and subtle, while the results of this treatment are easier to identify. Traditional social norms stereotype males as aggressive, able to solve problems, independent, and capable of career success, while females are seen as passive, dependent, emotional, and having career aspirations that center on homemaking and marriage. Differing academic achievement is documented in the following:

> Results from National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) assessments in eight learning areas show that males generally do better than females in four major subjects: mathematics, science, social studies and citizenship. In the four other learning areas, females consistently outperform males to any large degree in only one (writing); maintain a slight advantage in one (music); and in the remaining two subjects (reading and literature) are above male achievement levels at age 9, then drop to lag behind males by the young adult ages 26-35. (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1975)

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), in their research on the psychology of sex differences, have found that, intellectually, girls start off ahead of boys. They begin speaking, reading, and counting sooner; in the early grades, they are also better in math. However, during the high school years, a different pattern emerges and girls' performance on ability tests begins to decline. Indeed, male students exhibit significantly more IQ gain from adolescence to adulthood than their female counterparts do.

Research has found differences in intellectual functioning but has not documented any "innate" biological reasons for differing cognitive achievements. Thus, psychologists and educators are looking to cultural and environmental determinants. The following sections will identify some significant areas and behaviors within the school environment that influence, shape, and often limit potential.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND ROLE MODELS

For young people, their reality is what they see. Children, when questioned as to whether a woman can be a doctor or a man a nurse, often respond, "No, because I've never seen one." Role models are significant to a child's reality. The absence of role models can limit aspirations, while the availability of role models can expand aspirations and perceptions.

The structure and organization of schools and school systems, as in other institutions, illustrate an imbalance of males and females in various levels of the hierarchy. Men dominate administrative and policymaking positions, while women are concentrated in elementary classrooms. In elementary schools, while 83 percent of the instructional staff are females, only 14 percent of all elementary principals are women. At the secondary level, these figures are 49 percent of instructional staff and 2 percent of principals. Fifty years ago, over half of school principals in the U.S. were women (Coursen, 1975).

In higher education, 79 percent of the administrative positions at the institutions surveyed by the Ford Foundation were held by white men; white women held 14 percent, minority men held 5 percent, and minority women held less than 2 percent. Students see who is the leader. Boys do not have the opportunity to have a male kindergarten teacher as a role model and girls do not see a woman in a leadership role. Females in decision-making roles and males in nurturant roles are currently few in number in our schools.

CURRICULUM

The instructional program is another factor that inadvertently limits human potential. Examples of this are as follows: course titles that appeal only to males or to females; athletic programs with unequal funding and limited participation; and subject areas that do not integrate the contributions of women and minorities. Furthermore, career and vocational education programs are traditionally based. They have not assisted students to prepare for adult roles by offering guidance and exposure to non-traditional employment opportunity. Activities, classroom tasks and responsibilities, dress

codes, leadership positions, and instructional groupings are frequently divided on the basis of sex rather than some other criterion. These practices limit opportunity, aspirations, and skill development. School personnel and guidance programs can also inadvertently provide unequal treatment regarding behavior, course selection, and career planning.

Instructional materials such as textbooks, testing instruments, TV, and other media are contributors to sexism. They reinforce stereotypes by limiting roles and personality characteristics on the basis of the American Dream, which envisions the male worker, the female full-time homemaker. In actuality, almost half the work force is female, half of married women work, and more and more men are venturing into the homemaker role, at least part-time. The reality and complexity of the culture are not portrayed by these restricted images, which narrow rather than expand student experience and thought processes.

Schools often unknowingly reinforce stereotyped notions of sex-role behavior through the *physical environment*. Displays, trophy cases, bulletin boards, symbols and pictures within the school and classroom environment also communicate differential expectations. The exclusion of one sex in visuals or language discourages the participation of the excluded sex.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS AND BEHAVIORS

Teachers are a very influential factor in a student's achievement and aspiration. Teachers most likely find the behaviors they expect. There is a significant interrelationship between expectation and behavior. The experimenter's (or teacher's) initial hypothesis enormously influences both the experiment's participants and the experiment's results. (The leading researchers in this area were Rosenthal and his colleagues in the late 1960s.)

In 1969, Rosenthal and Jacobson extended their laboratory research in "self-fulfilling prophecies" to a real classroom situation. They tested a group of elementary students and told the teachers that certain of those students "showed great promise." In reality, those students named had been selected at random. The experimenters then retested the students at the end of the year. Those students identified as "promising" showed real and dramatic increases in their IQs as compared with the rest of the students. Certain aspects of the teacher's behavior had affected these "brighter" students.

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Since this research, there have been several efforts to determine exactly which behaviors convey these differential expectations. Research has now

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identified a series of adult verbal and non-verbal interactions that affect student achievement, aspiration, and self-image. These teacher behaviors, identified by Equal Opportunity in the Classroom, a federally funded teacher-training program, are as follows:

- Equal distribution of response opportunities (frequency with which teacher calls on students to recite or perform)
- Affirmation or correction of student's performance
- Physical proximity of and to student
- Individual help from teacher
- Praise and reasons for praise of learning performance
- Personal interest and compliments by teacher
- Latency--time teacher provides between questions and answers
- Attentive listening to student
- Physical contact with student (arm or shoulder)
- Delving (providing clues) and higher-level questions to help students respond to questions
- Accepting or clarifying students' feelings
- Desisting--correcting behavior in a calm, courteous manner
- Expression of courtesy and respect in interaction with student

Sex-Differentiated Behaviors

Most of the above categories were arrived at through research showing differences in teacher interactions with high and low achievers, but these differences also are significant in teachers' differential behavior toward males and females. A detailed analysis by Lisa Serbin and her colleagues of teacher behavior in preschool classes has demonstrated that: (1) Teachers paid more attention to boys than to girls, regardless of whether the boys were misbehaving. (2) When boys asked questions, the teachers gave

longer and more detailed answers and directions than they gave girls. (3) Teachers gave boys directions for doing things on their own, but more often than not they showed girls what to do instead of letting them do it on their own. (4) Girls are more likely to get positive reinforcement, pats on the head, and other affection-rewards from their teachers if they stand close to their teachers or behave dependently, while boys are as likely to get positive reinforcement from their teachers if they are close by or far away (Serbin et al., 1973). (5) Girls are more likely to stay with their teachers, and teachers are most likely to be in the areas of "fine motor skill" activities. If teachers do move to other activity areas (e.g., block areas, outside equipment areas), girls go to these areas. (6) There are correlations between the types of toys a child plays with and the child's later cognitive abilities (Connor and Serbin, 1979).

The teachers reported that they were completely unaware of rewarding boys for independence and activity while discouraging these behaviors in girls. Differing expectations manifested themselves in unconscious behaviors, verbal and non-verbal (smiles, a nod of the head, longer eye contact, pats on the head, etc.), which transmitted stereotyped messages to the students about how they should behave.

Specific Teacher Behaviors

Some researchers, Dweck and her colleagues in particular (Dweck and Gillard, 1975), have attempted to find out what specific behaviors in elementary school students elicit positive and negative feedback from teachers. They found different eliciting behaviors for the sexes. Boys receive most of their negative feedback or criticism for non-academic behavior--not sitting in their seats, making noise, etc. However, the positive feedback boys receive is most likely given for their academic work. For girls, the reverse pattern has been found. When a girl is given negative feedback, it is most likely for academic work. Girls receive positive feedback largely for non-academic tasks--having their work neat, being quiet, etc. Dweck has found evidence that if someone has received largely negative feedback, a failure experience will make the individual give up.

This has been called "learned helplessness." According to several studies, girls give up more easily after academic failure than boys, but if positive feedback for academic work is experimentally substituted, the learned helplessness can be eliminated.

It should be noted here that all of the above research has been done with female teachers, and there is no information as yet on whether male teachers treat students differently on the basis of gender. There are also no data to pinpoint the *causes* of teachers' differential behavior toward males and females. The research does, however, validate the profound effect of subtle differential behaviors: "Teachers who are aware of the circular sex differences/sex-differential reinforcement pattern can intervene and can stimulate each individual student to his/her fullest intellectual, social and physical potential" (Sargent, 1977, p. 408).

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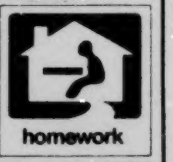
SESSION 3: THE ROLES WE PLAY

Student Leader Workshop

GOAL: TO BECOME AWARE OF HOW SEX ROLES INFLUENCE PERCEPTION, BEHAVIOR, AND COMMUNICATION

GENERAL BUSINESS	5	Review the previous session, inviting participants to share ideas and questions. Present Session 3 goals and overview. *OBJECTIVE #1* *Participants will state one way that sex-role expectations influence interpersonal communication.*	 large group	Name tags Sign-in sheet Chalkboard Newsprint Masking tape Markers Poster with Session 3 goals and overview
SIMULATION EXPERIENCE: SELECT OPTION	70	Select one of the following options: Option 1: Introduce the simulation game *Career vs. Homemaking** according to its directions. Start the play. Conduct a debriefing, according to the game's instructions. Option 2: Introduce the simulation game *Pro/Con.** It demands somewhat less of the Facilitator, but should be previewed for possible adjustment to a particular school setting, as sensitive issues are addressed. *Pro/Con* deals with various issues regarding sex-role options. Conduct the simulation game.	 optional  homework	OPTION 1: SIMULATION GAME: *Career vs. Homemaking* OPTION 2: SIMULATION GAME: *Pro/Con*
ALL OPTIONS	5	Summarize.	 worksheet	WORKSHEET: Plus and Minus
HOMEWORK	5	Assign the Worksheet "Plus and Minus" for the next session. (If time permits, have the students begin the Worksheet now.) Preview the next session.		
PROCESS EVALUATION	5	Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."	 evaluation	ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT: Process Evaluation Form

*See Resources, p. 13 of the *Coordinator's Guide*.

PLUS AND MINUS

Adapted from *Becoming Sex Fair*, a WEEA project developed by the Tredyffrin/Easttown School District, Berwyn, Pennsylvania.

INSTRUCTIONS: Do daily observations of activities, discipline methods, sports, responsibilities, etc., that seem to be different because of sex, and record examples.

Ways I have benefited from being a male/female today:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Ways I have been limited or disadvantaged by being a female/ male today.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

SESSION 4: HOW SEX ROLES CAN LIMIT

Student Leader Workshop

GOAL: TO UNDERSTAND THE LIMITING EFFECTS OF SEX ROLES ON MALES AND FEMALES

GENERAL BUSINESS — 5 minutes

Review the last session, asking for questions or feedback.

Present Session 4 goals and overview.

OBJECTIVE #1

Students will be able to identify at least two psychological and two biological differences between males and females.

PSYCHOLOGICAL AND BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF SEX DIFFERENCES — 10 minutes

Post and briefly review the list of differences generated in Session 1.

Give the Mini-Lecture "Biological Aspects of Sex Differences," using Transparencies 4 and 5, and the Mini-Lecture "Psychological Aspects of Sex Differences," using Transparency 6. Condense the Mini-Lectures as necessary and relate the presentation to the students' lists of similarities and differences. — 20 minutes

Have students summarize, stating biological differences and psychological differences between males and females.

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

Poster with Session 4 goals and overview

Poster with similarities and differences from Session 1

MINI-LECTURES:
Biological Aspects of Sex Differences
Psychological Aspects of Sex Differences

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS:
Biological Basics
Similarities and Differences
Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) Research Findings

OBJECTIVE #2

Students will be able to list at least one limiting effect of sex-role stereotyping for each sex.

LIMITING EFFECTS OF SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPES

5 Give the Mini-Lecture "How Sex Roles Can Limit."

10 In small groups, have students complete the Worksheet "Limiting Effects," using the data from the Worksheet "Plus and Minus" (from Session 3). Assign each group at least one area on which to focus their responses.

10 Have each group post examples within its area and report out to the whole group.

10 Conduct a question-and-answer session, focusing on one behavior at a time. Use the following questions:

- *What are the reasons for this behavior or result?*
- *What are the likely results of this for males or females?*
- *What are the limitations on the opposite sex because of this result?*
- *What are your personal experiences with any of these?*
- *Can girls be scientists? Can boys be homemakers or nurses?*

HOMEWORK

5 Assign the Readings for the next session, "How Sex Roles Can Limit" and "Realities of the Work World."

Preview the next session.

PROCESS EVALUATION

5 Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."

MINI-LECTURE: How Sex Roles Can Limit

WORKSHEET: Limiting Effects

READINGS: How Sex Roles Can Limit

Realities of the Work World

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT: Process Evaluation Form

MINI-LECTURE: BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF SEX DIFFERENCES

This Mini-Lecture provides background information on the biological influences on males and females and looks at sex differences and similarities.

DIFFERENT, BUT EQUAL

As we consider the biological aspects of sex differences, we will refer to *physical* differences between the sexes and their relationship to gender identity. The major source of clinical and experimental data is John Money and Anke Ehrhardt's Man and Woman, Boy and Girl (1972). These authors emphasize a multidisciplinary approach to gender identity that focuses on the interaction of heredity and environment. Gender identity and biological considerations are issues undergoing intensive research at present. Whatever biological differences exist, it is important not to use them to justify "natural" inferiority and superiority of the sexes.

FUNCTION AND STRUCTURE

Physical differences between the sexes fall into two categories--body processes or *function* and body composition or *structure*. Money, from Johns Hopkins University, has identified the following as biological constants. They reflect functional differences between males and females.

- Women: menstruate, gestate, lactate
- Men: impregnate

Structural differences include *skeletal*, *genetic*, and *hormonal* differences. Females have more fat, less water, and broader hips, and reach puberty, on the average, two years earlier than males. Males have more muscle tissue and wider shoulders, and show more variability in physical growth than females.

[Use the Transparencies "Biological Basics" and "Similarities and Differences" to illustrate.]

GENETIC DIFFERENCES

A normal human has 23 pairs of chromosomes in each cell, with one pair being the sex chromosome pair. In the female, the pair consists of XX chromosomes. In the male, the chromosome pair is XY. The egg and sperm each carry half of the normal number of chromosomes. The egg always carries an X chromosome, and the sperm carries either an X or a Y. Thus, the sperm, with its X or Y chromosome, determines the sex of the child.

Genes, which determine the characteristics to be inherited, are located on all chromosomes. Certain genes are carried on the sex chromosomes. This results in sex-linked traits such as color blindness and hemophilia. When these genes occur, they are carried by the X chromosome. In the male, there is no corresponding dominant gene on the Y chromosome to suppress the "defective" gene. This results in the high incidence of color blindness and hemophilia in males as compared to females. It is hypothesized that due to chromosomal structure, males are more susceptible to pre-, peri-, and postnatal difficulties.

HORMONES

In human gestation, after approximately six weeks, different internal reproductive organs begin to develop as determined by the *sex hormones*. The female system will develop unless *androgen* (male hormone) is released, causing the male system to develop. Sexual abnormalities in appearance and behavior will result if the hormone state of the fetus is disturbed during this period.

Sex hormones are also influential in establishing adult appearance during the critical period of *puberty*. Until puberty, the physical appearance of boys and girls is relatively similar and stable, aside from differences in sex organs. At puberty, hormones are released that cause secondary sex characteristics to develop. Estrogen and progesterone are female sex hormones; androgens are male sex hormones.

Research with animals and humans suggests that genes and hormones establish a *predisposition* toward a particular behavior prior to birth. This predisposition may be modified through learning. Cultural beliefs play a significant role in shaping behavior.

TWIN STUDY

The sex reassignment of a male identical twin described by Money and Ehrhardt (1972) demonstrates the impact that learning has on gender identity. At seven months of age, one boy's penis was accidentally burned off during

circumcision. Doctors advised sex reassignment, which included genital reconstruction surgery, hormone replacement, and professional guidance for the family. The parents socialized the child as a daughter. Six years later the girl (a boy at birth) behaved as a girl and was not confused as to her gender identity.

This study and others illustrate that *social factors* such as the gender to which a child is assigned can substantially modify biological predisposition.

MINI-LECTURE: PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF SEX DIFFERENCES

This Mini-Lecture covers the fundamental aspects of psychological differences and similarities between females and males.

PSYCHOLOGY AND RESEARCH

When considering the various psychological aspects of sex differences, we will look only at behavior which is *observable*. The field of psychology does also include theories regarding the sources or causes of behavior, but these theories are based on *inferences*, which are developed through observation and speculation. Causes of behavior can only be *hypothesized*.

Research data in the area of sex-role stereotyping deal with the *average* differences between males and females as a group. It is important to note here that there are always more differences among males and among females than between the average male and average female. [Use the Transparency "Maccoby and Jacklin Research Findings to illustrate the foregoing and then discuss.]

FOUR CONSISTENT DIFFERENCES

Two Stanford psychologists, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), spent three years reviewing and interpreting over 1,400 research studies in the area of sex differences. Their work showed only four behaviors that were consistently different for females and males. It is not known whether these differences are *innate* or *learned*. They are as follows [use the Transparency to illustrate]:

- Males demonstrated more aggressive behavior, both physically and verbally
- Males performed better at visual-spatial tasks.
- Males excelled in mathematical ability.
- Females showed earlier verbal facility and demonstrated greater verbal ability.

Note: One behavior thought to be particularly sex-related was nurturance. Yet there is still no conclusive evidence to identify nurturance as a sex difference.

COGNITIVE DIFFERENCES

During childhood, males and females demonstrate similar visual-spatial, verbal, and mathematical abilities. At age 11 or 12, differences begin to develop, with males demonstrating greater ability at visual-spatial and mathematical tests, and females showing greater verbal ability.

SOCIAL DIFFERENCES

Males have been found to be more aggressive (physically and verbally) in all cultures where aggressive behavior has been observed. The primary recipients of male aggression are other males. At Stanford, Bandura used incentive reinforcement of aggression. He found that young females increased in aggression when they were positively reinforced for demonstrating aggressive behavior.

This study, as well as others, points to the age-old question and debate: How much of a particular behavior is innate and how much is learned?

MENTAL HEALTH

The Broverman study (1970) with mental health professionals demonstrated a double standard in criteria for mental health. The subjects were divided into three groups, each asked to describe a different concept:

- Group 1 described a healthy, mature, socially competent adult (sex unspecified).
- Group 2 described a healthy, mature, socially competent man.
- Group 3 described a healthy, mature, socially competent woman.

There was a positive correlation between the concepts of healthy adult and healthy male, but a negative correlation between the concepts of healthy adult and healthy female. In summary, healthy adults and healthy males were expected to be independent and aggressive, and to control emotion. Healthy females were expected to be passive and dependent.

It would appear that mental health professionals (both males and female) expect their female clients to be less than healthy adults. Females are

placed in the dilemma of trying to be "healthy, well-functioning adults" who are assertive and independent, while trying to be "healthy, well-functioning females" who are pleasing and somewhat dependent. In this description, female traits and adult traits are *antagonistic* to each other. In addition, stereotypic masculine traits are more socially desirable.

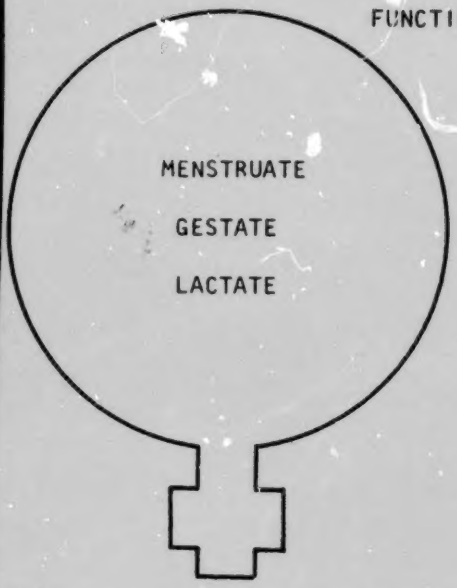
NDROGYNY

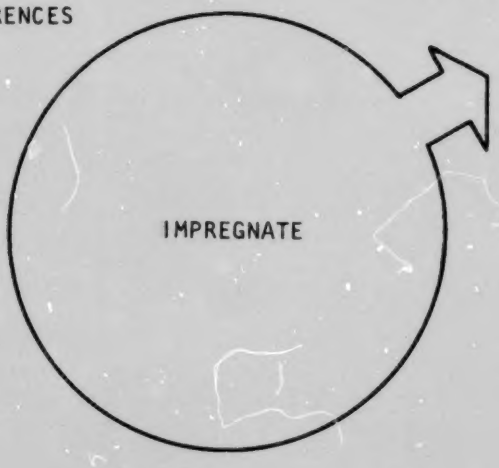
The traditional concept of mental health needs re-evaluation. A new concept, psychological *androgyny*, has emerged to expand the range of acceptable behaviors for females and males.

Androgyny is a balanced expression of "masculine" and "feminine" traits to allow each sex the full range of human characteristics needed for individual actualization.

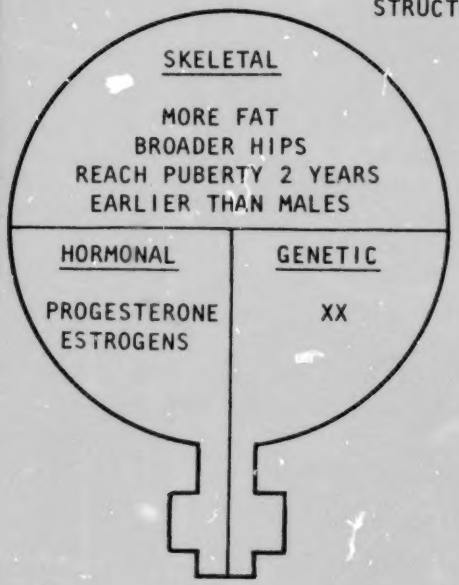
BIOLOGICAL BASICS

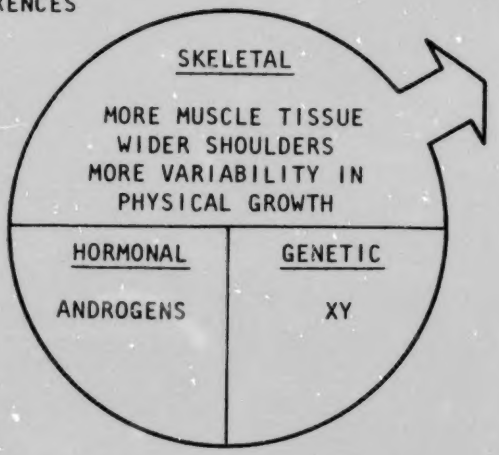
FUNCTIONAL DIFFERENCES



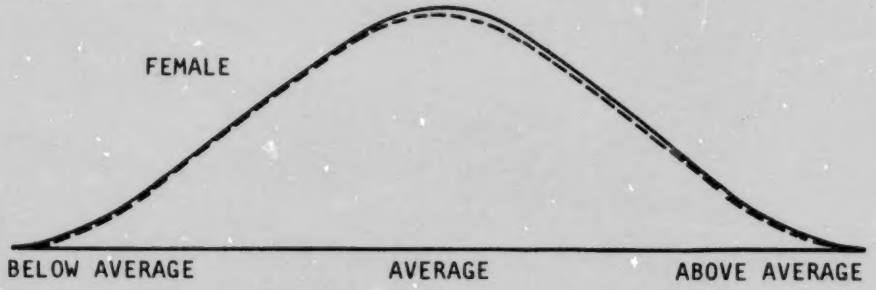


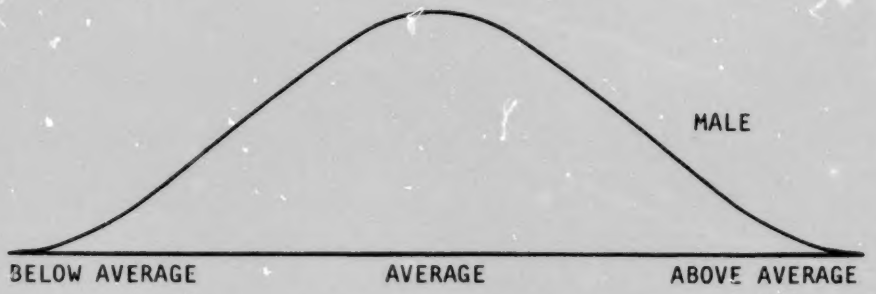
STRUCTURAL DIFFERENCES

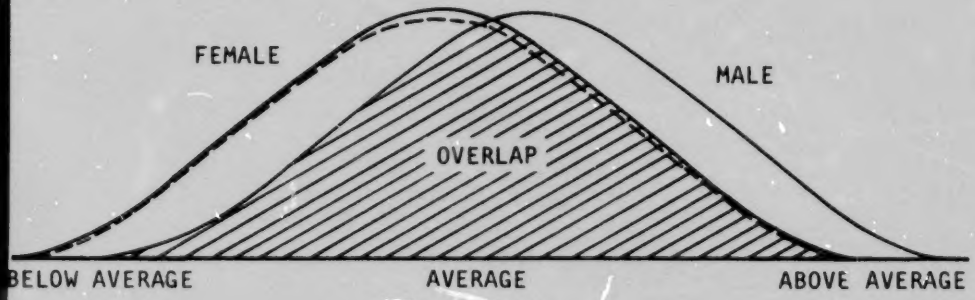




SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES







MACCOBY AND JACKLIN (1974) RESEARCH FINDINGS

- MALES DEMONSTRATED MORE AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR, BOTH PHYSICALLY AND VERBALLY.
- MALES PERFORMED BETTER AT VISUAL-SPATIAL TASKS.
- MALES EXCELLED IN MATHEMATICAL ABILITY.
- FEMALES SHOWED EARLIER VERBAL FACILITY AND DEMONSTRATED GREATER VERBAL ABILITY.

MINI-LECTURE: HOW SEX ROLES CAN LIMIT

This Mini-Lecture provides a general overview of the limitations and damaging effects of sex-role stereotyping. The four areas covered overlap, but provide a useful guideline to examine these effects.

LIMITING EFFECTS

Sex roles can place limitations on both females and males. These limiting effects vary in intensity, degree and general area for each sex. Men and boys seem to be more limited in the areas of interpersonal relationships and expression of tender feelings, while women and girls seem to be more affected in the areas of academic achievement, career aspiration, and self-esteem.

Before completing the Worksheet "Limiting Effects," let us look at some specific examples of the limitations of sex-role stereotyping for males and females in each of the following areas: academic and career/vocational; personal and social.

ACADEMIC AND CAREER/VOCATIONAL

FEMALE	MALE
Academic: In elementary school, females typically outperform males; but during high school years, female performance on ability tests begins to decline.	Academic: In elementary school, most discipline problems and most low achievers are male.
Career/Vocational: By the fourth grade, girls limit their career choices to four areas: teacher, nurse, secretary, or mother.	Career/Vocational: Males are restricted by social criticism when they consider nontraditional career areas such as nurse or dancer.

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL	FEMALE	MALE
	Personal: Women and men consider the female sex inferior and place greater value on characteristics associated with masculinity.	Personal: Males suffer a high health cost, as they have a 50 percent higher rate of stress-related diseases than women do.
	Social: Women tend to underrate their popularity and their leadership ability.	Social: Men learn to hide emotions and suffer consequently in relationships with their families and with other men.

LIMITING EFFECTS

The limiting effects of sex-role stereotyping are examined in this exercise.

INSTRUCTIONS: In your own words, give at least two examples of the limitations of sex-role stereotyping in each of the areas listed.

Academic and Educational Limitations

Limited Career and Vocational Aspirations

Personal Costs and Limitations

Social and Interpersonal Limits

Share at least one personal experience that is related to a limiting effect you have listed on the previous page.

READING 3

HOW SEX ROLES CAN LIMIT

This Reading was adapted by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments from materials prepared by Project Awareness.

INTRODUCTION

Sex roles limit males and females differently. The effects of the limitations vary in intensity, degree, and general area. Men and boys seem to be more limited in the area of the affective domain and in interpersonal relationships, whereas women and girls seem to experience greater limitations in the areas of academic achievement, career aspiration, and self-esteem.

This Reading is divided into two major sections: Academic and Career Limitations, and Personal and Social Limitations. The two areas are considered first with reference to males, then to females. The Reading is sex segregated so that the subtle, isolated instances can provide a comprehensive perspective. These key studies were drawn together in a list, meant to be representative rather than inclusive, to gain some sense of the growth that has been stunted and of the promise that has been denied.

ACADEMIC AND CAREER LIMITATIONS--MALES

ACADEMIC

- At age six, when a boy enters first grade, he may be twelve months behind his female counterpart in developmental age, and by age nine this discrepancy has increased to eighteen months. Thus he is working side by side with a female who not only may be bigger than he, but who seems more competent to handle school (Bentzen, 1966).

- Among boys and girls of comparable IQ, *girls* are likely to receive higher grades. Also, boys who do as well as girls on achievement tests get *lower* grades in school. In fact, throughout elementary school, two-thirds of all grade repeaters are *boys* (Peltier, 1968).

- A study of 12,000 boys produced some interesting findings: the research correlated masculinity scores on the California Psychological Inventory with the students' school grades. It was found that the higher a boy scored on the masculine scale, the lower his report card average tended to be. The author of this study came to the conclusion that many schools and academies themselves must be dehumanizing and unmanly places. He suggested that boys who succeed in school must do so by violating many codes of honor and the norms of "boy culture."

- Boys drop out of school more often than girls, allegedly due to lack of interest and the desire for paid work. Girls reportedly leave due to personal reasons, e.g., marriage, illness, pregnancy (Fitzsimmons et al., 1969).

- Boys are the maladjusted, the low achievers, the truants, the delinquents, the inattentive, the rebellious. National delinquency rates are five times higher among boys than girls, and in New York City, 63 percent of all dropouts are boys.

- Boys receive nine to ten times as many prohibitory control messages (warnings like "That's enough talking, Bill," and "Put away that comic, Joe") as their female classmates. Moreover, when teachers criticize boys, they are more likely to use harsh or angry tones than when talking with girls about an equivalent misdemeanor.

- Boys perceived their teachers' feelings toward them to be less favorable than those toward girls, and teachers rated girls more favorably than boys on behavioral and personality characteristics (Davidson and Lang, 1960).

- In a study by Meyer and Thompson (1965), boys received more praise as well as more disapproval from their teachers than girls did.

- Some researchers have found that three times more boys than girls have trouble with reading (Frazier and Sadker, 1971).

- The male "physical striver" considers it masculine not to care what his teachers think. "Look how much I got away with" is far more masculine than an enthusiastic "Look how much I learned!" Reading difficulty itself is perpetuated by the fear of studying, and by the fear of appearing girlish (Farrell, 1974).

CAREER

- Our society offers a wide variety of potential careers for men, but there are some restrictions, especially for males who consider becoming nurses, dancers, secretaries, or teachers of very young children. They are obligated to absorb social criticism or change their decisions (Sadker, n.d.).

- Although acceptable career options for men are socially restricted, at least one characteristic of any acceptable occupation remains constant: it must pay well. The size of a man's paycheck is a measure of his worth and masculinity (Sakder, n.d.).

- Because of the pressure to earn, earn, earn, men often find themselves victims of the career lock-in. With the family's financial well-being totally in his hands, a man's decisions are no longer his own (Sadker, n.d.).

- The other side of the career lock-in is the leisure and retirement lock-out. Without work, men are without direction or purpose. The suicide rate for retired men is several times that of retired women (Sadker, n.d.).

- Almost nothing in the prefatherhood learning of males is oriented in any way to train them for parenting. They are actively discouraged as children from play activities involving baby surrogates, and, except in rare instances of large families with few or no older sisters, they are not usually required to help much in the daily care of younger siblings (Chafetz, 1974).

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL LIMITATIONS--MALES

MENTAL HEALTH

- Most boys build expectations that are higher than their achievements. Boys who score high on sex-appropriate behavior also score highest in anxiety. Striving to maintain a masculine role is stressful enough to be associated with manifested anxiety (Gray, 1957).

- It is common knowledge within the mental health profession that the incidence of schizophrenia (childhood and adult forms) for males is three to four times as high as that for females. In state and county mental hospital units for children, boys outnumber girls by approximately 50 percent. Under the age of 15, males are diagnosed as schizophrenics 42 percent more frequently than girls.

NURTURANCE AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

- One of the first things an American male learns is to hide his emotions; indeed, the one proscriptive element of the male role concerns the injunction against being warm, open, tender, emotional, and vulnerable. "That's all right for women, but 'men' are not like that" (David and Brannon, 1976).

- Men suffer in their relationships with children. These relationships, already attenuated because of the father's involvement with work, have little closeness and intimacy. However, it is in men's relationships with each other that the proscription against having "feminine" feelings is most costly (David and Brannon, 1976).

- Elementary school pupils (9-12) were given the Elementary Form of Mental Health Analysis. Girls scored higher than boys on total assets (close personal relationships, interpersonal skills, social participation, satisfying work and recreation, adequate outlook and goals), and lower on total liabilities.

AGGRESSION

- Six volumes of studies document that violence in American society is taught, learned, and acted upon. Boys are actually encouraged by parents to be aggressive, while girls are not. Almost all television models encourage aggression in men. Childhood aggression predictably results in continued, undisguised aggression when boys become men (Farrell, 1974; Liebert, 1972).

- While everybody seems to know that men commit significantly more crimes, it is perhaps less well known that they are also significantly more likely to be the victims. Males are the victims of aggravated assault 14 percent more often than women; men are 104 percent more often the victims of burglary, 150 percent more often the victims of larceny, and 45 percent more often the victims of robbery. According to the 1972 *Uniform Crime Reports*, men were the victims of murder in approximately 80 percent of cases.

- When boys are referred for professional help, it is generally because of deviant behavior that externalizes hostility toward others or the environment (McIntyre, 1972).

CONFORMITY

- Demands that *boys* conform to social notions of what is manly are reinforced with much more vigor than similar attitudes with respect to *girls*. Several research studies, using preschool children as their subjects, indicate that boys are generally aware of what is suitably "masculine," and therefore carefully restrict their interests and activities accordingly, while girls amble gradually in the direction of "feminine" patterns for five more years.

- Expected behavior for young boys usually is communicated in terms of what not to do, rather than in terms of how they should behave. This occurs both at home and in the classroom. The damage of stereotyping may be as irreparable for the *boy* as for the *girl*. When boys learn stereotyped male behavior there is a 20 percent better chance that it will stay with them for life than when girls learn stereotyped behavior (Mussen, 1962).

ROLE MODELS

- Given the relative absence of male figures during his waking hours, the male toddler is hard pressed to find out what he is supposed to do. When the father is present, he often surpasses the mother in punishing the boy for being too "feminine." The boy finds out that "boys don't cry," "boys don't cling," and so on, but often on the basis of negative sanctions from parents and peers (Chafetz, 1974; Lynn, 1969).

- Because of the relative absence of fathers from boys' experience, the elementary-aged boy looks to his peers to fill in the gaps in his information about his role as a male. Since his peers have no better sources of information than he has, all they can do is pool the impressions and

anxieties they derive from the media and their early training. Thus, we find overemphasis on physical strength and athletic skills, with almost complete omission of tender feelings or acceptance of responsibility toward those who are weaker.

HEALTH

- According to recent statistics, more males than females suffer from serious diseases, both infectious and stress-related. What is more, men are more likely to die from these maladies. Men are four to five times more likely than females to die from bronchitis, emphysema, or asthma. Pneumonia and influenza are fatal for males 64 percent more often than for females; and there are twice as many male as female tubercular patients in hospitals. According to 1975 figures from the American Cancer Society, the annual death rate for males from cancer is almost 40 percent higher.

- Chafetz correlates the higher rates of alcohol and drug abuse with the pressures of the male sex role. Males also have a higher suicide rate than females. "The proscription on expressing emotions entailed in the masculine role definition probably exacerbates the stresses inherent in the obligation to support a family--financially and emotionally--and to succeed in an often highly competitive 'rat race'" (Chafetz, 1974).

ACADEMIC AND CAREER LIMITATIONS--FEMALES

ACADEMIC

- In the early elementary years, girls typically outperform boys, especially in reading and verbal skills. Developmentally, girls start off ahead of boys. They begin speaking, reading, and counting sooner; in the early grades they are even better in math. However, during the high school years, a different pattern emerges, and girls' performance on ability tests begins to decline. Indeed, male students exhibit significantly more IQ gain from adolescence to adulthood than their female counterparts do (Maccoby, 1966).

- A report of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) indicates major disparities in educational achievement of males and females, with males outperforming females in four major subject areas: mathematics, science, social studies, and citizenship (NAEP, 1975).

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- At age nine, boys and girls show understandings in these subjects that are fairly equal. However, by 13, young women begin a decline in achievement that continues into adulthood. Only in writing and music do females outperform males (NAEP, 1975).

- Along with the drop in achievement, there is a trend for girls' IQ scores to decline in late adolescence and early adulthood.

- Although women earn much better high school grades than men do, they are less likely to believe that they have the ability to do college work (Cross, 1968).

- Of the brightest high school graduates who do not go to college, 75 to 90 percent are women (Women's Equity Action League, n.d.).

- Studying mathematics is essential if a female wants to reach the higher levels of a career or discipline, even in fields that are traditionally female, such as social science, nursing, and the humanities. Yet in high school only 40 percent of college-bound females study math for three or more years, compared to 60 percent of males.

- College women respond negatively to women who have achieved high academic or vocational success, and at times display an actual desire to avoid success (Horner, 1969).

- In 1900, women earned 6 percent of all doctoral degrees; in 1920, 15 percent; but by 1968, only 13 percent. In 1977, the trend showed an upswing, with women earning almost 25 percent of all doctorates (WEAA, 1978).

- College women believe that men desire a woman who is extremely passive and who places wifely and familial duties above her own personal and professional development (Steinman, Levi, and Fox, 1964).

CAREER ASPIRATIONS

- By the time they are in the fourth grade, girls envision only four occupations open to them: teacher, nurse, secretary, or mother. Boys of the same age do not view their occupational potential through such restrictive glasses (O'Hara, 1962).

- By the ninth grade, 25 percent of boys and only 3 percent of girls are considering careers in science or engineering (Bem and Bem, 1970).

- A decline in career commitment has been noted in girls of high school age. This decline is related to their feelings that male classmates disapprove of a woman using her intelligence (Hawley, 1971).

- In a survey conducted in 1966 throughout the state of Washington, 66.7 percent of boys and 59 percent of girls stated that they wished to have careers in professional occupations. However, 57 percent of the boys and *only 31.9 percent of the girls stated that they actually expected to be working in such an occupation* (Slocum and Boles, 1968).

ECONOMIC

- More than two-thirds of the poor over age 65 are women.

- The largest body of workers not covered by social security is homemakers. There are no social security credits for the homemaker's unpaid labor, so that her credits are tied to the breadwinner. The pitfalls of this dependency are many, especially after a divorce or widowhood before age 60.

See the Reading "Realities of the Work World" for additional information regarding employment.

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL LIMITATIONS--FEMALES

MENTAL HEALTH

- On the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, norms show that women are more neurotic and less self-sufficient, more introverted and less dominant than men (Bernreuter, 1932). Later studies have had similar results, with women reporting higher levels of neuroticism and extroversion (Hannah, Storm, and Caird, 1965).

- A study published in 1970 by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, *Selected Symptoms of Psychological Distress*, substantiates an earlier study published in 1960 by the Joint Commission on Mental Health and Illness. The results reported for nonhospitalized American adults can be summarized as follows: Greater distress with life and corresponding symptoms are reported by more women than by men, with more women being diagnosed as neurotic. Other studies report that women received psychotherapeutic services in greater numbers than men, both in- and out-patient, in private and public facilities (U.S. DHEW, 1970).

- Studies of childhood behavior problems show that boys are most often referred to child guidance clinics for aggressive, antisocial behavior, while girls are referred for personality problems such as fears, shyness, and feelings of inferiority. Boys are diagnosed as schizophrenic and learning disabled more frequently than girls. Psychiatric symptomatology for adults parallels childhood problems: men's symptoms are likely to be hostility toward others and pathological self-indulgence such as rape or drinking, while women's symptoms reflect a self-critical and self-destructive set of attitudes, e.g., depression, confusion, and self-depreciation.

- More married women than married men show phobic reactions, depression, and passivity, greater than expected frequency of symptoms of psychological distress, and mental health impairment.

- Studies have shown that of the four categories--married men, married women, single men, single women--married men and single women are the happiest, while married women and single men are the unhappiest.

LOSS OF SELF-ESTEEM

- According to one study, women as well as men *do* consider the female sex inferior. Women college students were asked to make critical evaluations of articles written by professionals. The same article was presented, with a male author or a female author--John T. McKay or Joan T. McKay. Both male and female participants found an article more valuable--and its author more competent--when the article bore a male name as author.

- Sex-role stereotypes ascribe greater social value to masculine than to feminine behavior (Smith, 1939).

- Both male and female college students feel the characteristics associated with masculinity are more valuable and more socially desirable than those associated with femininity (McKee and Sherriffs, 1957).

- As boys and girls progress through school, their opinions of boys grow increasingly more positive and their opinions of girls increasingly more negative. Both sexes learn that boys are valued more by society (Smith, 1939).

- Fewer high school women than men rated themselves above average on leadership, popularity in general, popularity with the opposite sex, and intellectual as well as social self-confidence (Cross, 1968).

CONFORMITY

- Girls and women have also been found to be more conforming to others than boys and men (Mock and Tuddenham, 1971; Ender, 1966).
- Girls have also been found to adhere to the stereotype that they should seek help more often than boys (Einmerich, Goldman, and Shore, 1971).

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READING 4

REALITIES OF THE WORK WORLD

This Reading was researched and written by Lynn Stuvé, Interface Network, in collaboration with Gene Tendler, San Diego Unified School District, ROP. Interface Network is an Educational Nonprofit Corporation, San Diego, California.

INTRODUCTION

There are more women working than ever before in our nation's history. More women are participating in politics; more are managing, teaching, learning, *but*. . . .

Most Americans work in sex-segregated environments. Most women hold low-status jobs and draw lower salaries than men for the same work; many live in poverty. Inequity is the reality.

This reading documents the inequities of women and work. It covers labor force participation, marital and family status, occupational segregation, education and parity, the earnings gap, and women and poverty. Finally, it suggests a focal issue for the 1980s.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

According to the Department of Labor, unprecedented numbers of women entered the work force during the 1970s. An average of over a million women were added to the work force each year during that decade, and the trend is continuing in the '80s. This rate of labor force participation signals the beginning of one of the most unique and dramatic periods of change in the role of women in our country. Most of this record gain occurred among women under the age of 35 (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1979).

In 1981, about 46.8 million women were working for pay outside the home, comprising 43 percent of the country's entire labor force. About three

out of every four employed women work full-time--35 hours or more per week (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1981a).

In 1981, 52 percent of the female population 16 years of age and over was employed, rising from 43 percent in 1970. Of the same age male population, 76 percent was employed. Until 1965, middle-aged women dominated the increases in female labor force participation. Since 1965, these increases have shifted to women under the age of 35, and are concentrated in the 25-34 age group. This is remarkable because most women in this age group are married, live with their husbands, and have children under 18 at home--factors that have traditionally tended to keep women out of the labor force (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1979).

Factors that account for this increase in women workers are varied. A high inflation rate has made a second income necessary for some families to survive, or to maintain their standard of living. More women are single family heads. Jobs have been available, particularly in those rapidly growing fields--sales, clerical, service--where there is a preponderance of women. Social changes--rising divorce rates, declining birth rates, later marriages--have had their effects. The standard of living has risen, and a large cohort of the post-World War II (baby boom) generation is reaching labor force age. Increasing numbers of educated women--particularly college graduates--now want to pursue careers. Finally, the women's movement has raised consciousness, making work for pay outside the home more socially acceptable for mothers and fostering the view that through work, women can find additional intellectual and personal fulfillment.

Looking ahead, the U.S. Department of Labor projects that the number of women in the labor force will continue to increase. By 1990, 57 percent of all women 16 years and older will be working or seeking jobs, and they will make up about 45 percent of the labor force. In addition, it is projected that 72 percent of all women of prime working age--ages 25 to 54--will be in the 1990 labor force (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1980).

MARITAL AND FAMILY STATUS

Marital and family status, factors that affect women in the work force, have changed significantly over the past 25 years. In March 1981, more than half (54 percent) of the nation's children under the age of 18 had mothers who worked away from home. The numbers have risen steadily, from 39 percent in 1970. The most recent year-to-year increase in the number of children with working mothers occurred among those under six years of

age. Looking at the statistics from another perspective, 50 percent of all mothers with children under 18 were in the labor force in 1981 (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1981b).

Among more than half (59.8 percent) of the married couples with children, both wife and husband were wage earners. The median family income for these two-earner families was $27,745, compared to $20,743 if only the husband worked and $13,612 if only the wife worked.

In the second quarter of 1982, a record 5.9 million families, or one out of every six, were maintained by a woman who was divorced, separated, or widowed, or who had never married. The monthly incomes of families maintained by women averaged $1,012; families maintained by men averaged $1,676 per month (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982a).

OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION

Although the number of working women outside the home has increased significantly, there has been little change in the types of work they do. Most of the 46.8 million working women are occupationally segregated. More than half of them are employed in just 20 of the 144 jobs listed in the Census Occupational Classification System. What's more, the Department of Labor predicts that women will continue to choose jobs along traditional lines in the future (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1980).

In the first quarter of 1982, 71 percent of female workers were employed in three occupational groups: clerical (38 percent), service (13 percent), and professional (20 percent). Male workers comprised only 33 percent of the same occupational groups (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982a).

Occupational segregation by sex is primarily the result of sex-role stereotyping of appropriate roles and jobs for men and women. While traditional roles may be satisfying, they often have the effect of limiting options and opportunities. For example, when junior high or high school girls are advised to avoid difficult mathematics and science courses and to think of themselves primarily as future wives and mothers, it does them a great disservice. According to the labor trends reviewed above, they are likely to be not only wives and mothers, but wage earners as well. Avoidance of mathematics and science courses eliminates many job options and limits employment to jobs that are generally lower-paying than those requiring

mathematical, scientific, or technical skills. (See the section on the earnings gap, below, for details.)

Not only are most women segregated into three major occupational groups, but even within these major categories they are concentrated in sex-segregated subgroups. To illustrate, in the clerical category, with over 14 million workers in 1981, women were concentrated in jobs as bookkeepers, secretaries, cashiers, and typists, while men were concentrated in jobs as stock clerks and storekeepers, shipping and receiving clerks, ticket agents, dispatchers, mail carriers, and estimators and investigators. Jobs that had the highest percentages of male workers had the highest wages. Specifically, secretaries (99 percent female) averaged $230 per week, while stock clerks (66 percent male) earned $264 per week; mail carriers (88 percent male) were paid $406 per week, while bookkeepers (91 percent female) earned only $227 per week (Rytina, 1982).

Even within occupations, women are segregated. As medical doctors, they are overrepresented in pediatrics, psychiatry, anesthesiology, and pathology, but grossly underrepresented in surgery and surgical specialties--the higher-paying practices. In law, few women are in the upper echelons of law firms, on judicial benches, or in prominent positions in state and national legislatures. In education, women account for nearly 82 percent of the nation's elementary teachers, but less than 50 percent of the secondary teachers and only 20 percent of college-level teachers (Rytina, 1982).

In insurance, more women are found in the less lucrative personal lines than in commercial lines. Women work in "inside" jobs where opportunities for advancement are limited, while men are placed in "outside" sales positions, which are better paid and lead to higher-level positions. Women in business are concentrated in personnel, staff, and administrative departments, where salaries are lower and opportunities limited. In retail sales, women sell low-priced items while men are placed in the "big ticket," higher-commission departments (Women Employed Institute, 1980).

When measured as a rate of increase, women's entry into nontraditional occupations shows impressive growth, but the absolute numbers of women in such occupations are extremely small (see Chart 1).

CHART 1.
WOMEN IN TRADITIONALLY MALE JOBS, 1971-1981

OCCUPATION	FEMALES EMPLOYED (THOUSANDS) 1971	1981	CHANGE 1971-1981 (THOUSANDS)	% CHANGE	FEMALES EMPLOYED AS % OF TOTAL 1971	1981
Truck Drivers	11	32	21	191	.7	2.1
Engineers	12	68	56	467	1.0	4.7
Crafts, Miscellaneous	229	595	366	160	2.7	5.6
Laborers, Miscellaneous	108	335	227	210	3.7	10.4
Protective Services	50	100	50	100	4.7	7.6
Mail Carriers	17	26	9	53	6.2	11.7
Blue-Collar Supervisors	103	186	83	81	7.4	10.5
Physicians, Dentists	103	73	30	59	7.9	23.2
Technicians, Scientists	84	188	104	124	9.7	17.8
Religious Workers	33	25	8	24	11.6	9.3

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, 1980-1981.

For the most part, women have crowded into the clerical and service fields; projections indicate that over the next decade two-thirds of the total increase in employment of women will be in traditionally female occupations.

As Chart 2 indicates, employment of women in clerical fields has increased by 8 percent over the past 20 years, while the number of women employed as managers and in administration has increased by only 2.7 percent, and as craft workers by only 1.3 percent.

CHART 2.
OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING WOMEN, 1960-1981

OCCUPATION	1960	1978	1981
Clerical Workers	30.3	34.6	38.0
Service Workers, except private household	23.7	20.6	12.8
Professional and Technical Workers	12.4	15.6	20.4
Operatives	15.2	11.8	12.8
Sales Workers	7.7	6.9	4.3
Managers and Administrators	5.0	6.1	7.7
Craft Workers	1.0	1.8	2.3
Other	4.3	5.5	1.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1981.

EDUCATION AND PARITY

With respect to educational attainment, the relationship between working men and women did not change between 1970 and 1980, except among the youngest group. The proportion of men with a year or more of college continued to be almost six percentage points above that of women, while women remained less likely to be high school dropouts. However, among workers 25 to 34--the age group comprising the largest part of the baby boom generation--the male-female difference in the proportion with some college education narrowed substantially. Close to half of all workers in that age group had completed some college by 1980.

Educational attainment has historically been associated with higher rates of labor force participation, a pattern that persisted in March of 1981. College graduates had the highest labor force participation rates, and high school dropouts the lowest. However, a woman's payoff for educational achievement is much less than a man's. To illustrate, Chart 3 compares the

earnings in occupations employing large numbers of women to those in predominantly male fields that are characterized by similar or even lesser educational credentials.

CHART 3.
EDUCATION AND EARNINGS, MALE- AND FEMALE-INTENSIVE OCCUPATIONS

	MEDIAN YEARS OF SCHOOL	MEDIAN EARNINGS	
	1979	1970	1981*
MALE-INTENSIVE OCCUPATIONS			
Truck Drivers	9.0	$ 9,640	$16,328
Auto Mechanics	10.5	9,070	14,820
Delivery Workers	11.7	9,060	14,248
Wholesale Sales Reps	13.8	13,690	16,432
Managers and Administrators (nonfinancial)	13.8	16,770	22,412
FEMALE-INTENSIVE OCCUPATIONS			
Retail Sales Clerks	12.7	$ 6,470	$ 9,256
Bookkeepers	13.7	6,540	11,804
Typists	13.7	6,070	11,076
Secretaries	13.9	6,860	11,960
Registered Nurses	14.2	8,090	12,264

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, BLS; U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau.

*Based on weekly medians

Clearly, the economic return on greater educational achievement is typically low in occupations where women predominate. These jobs pay consistently less than male-dominated fields, regardless of educational achievement or economic demand. Secretarial work is a prime example of designating "women's work" as automatically lower paid. Even the current secretarial shortage has not produced significant wage increases. Companies classify jobs as clerical and set salary rates and ceilings for these jobs with little or no consideration of the actual job content or skills required. Corporate salary schedules commonly fail to differentiate between lower-skilled and higher-skilled clerical jobs. Further, employers make few provisions for a schedule of salary increases, after the initial years, to reward seniority and reflect the abilities developed over time in a company. The principle used to set salaries is that women hold these jobs; wage rates are not based on an objective analysis of the actual skills involved (Women Employed Institute, 1980).

THE EARNINGS GAP

The magnitude and persistence of the earnings gap between men and women are familiar and important issues among working women. First, most women work because of economic need, and women have assumed a significant role in their own and their families' economic support. Women's concentration in low-paying, dead-end jobs makes their budget problems more difficult. Second, the sustained earnings differential is in sharp contrast to the gains women have made in the numbers and kinds of jobs they hold. Women who worked at year-round, full-time jobs in 1980 earned only 60 cents for every dollar earned by men. In fact, men's median weekly earnings exceeded women's by about $143, so that women had to work nearly 8.3 days to gross the same earnings men grossed in 5 days (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1979).

The earnings differential has not changed substantially in recent years. In 1980, the median annual $18,612 earned by men exceeded women's $11,197 by 66 percent. When the absolute difference between the earnings of men and women over a 25-year period is expressed in constant dollars to take into account the reduced purchasing power of the dollar, the disparity is even more evident. As Chart 4 indicates, the earnings gap in constant 1967 dollars increased from $1,911 in 1955 to $3,004 in 1980 (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1979).

Some major gains for working women have been made over the past ten years. Women have access to jobs previously closed to them. Lawsuits have

established legal precedents for equal opportunity, equal pay, and affirmative action. Nevertheless, the 1981 labor statistics do not show any significant changes in the wage differential between men and women. Even in occupations dominated by women, men earn more.

CHART 4.
COMPARISON OF MEDIAN EARNINGS OF YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS, BY SEX
1955-1980
(Persons 14 years of age and over)

YEAR	MEDIAN EARNINGS WOMEN	MEDIAN EARNINGS MEN	EARNINGS GAP IN DOLLARS	WOMEN'S EARNINGS AS % OF MEN'S	% MEN'S EARNINGS EXCEEDED WOMEN'S	EARNINGS GAP IN CONSTANT 1967 DOLLARS
1980	$11,197	$18,612	$ 7,415	60.2	66.2	$ 3,004
1975	7,504	12,758	5,254	58.8	70.0	3,259
1965	3,823	6,375	2,552	60.0	66.8	2,700
1960	3,293	5,417	2,124	60.8	64.5	2,394
1955	2,719	4,252	1,533	63.9	56.4	1,911

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of the Census.

Notes: For 1967-80, data include wage and salary income and earnings from self-employment; for 1955-56, data include wage and salary income only.

POVERTY

Poverty and low-income levels are determined annually by the Department of the Census, in accordance with the Consumer Price Index. Poverty is now defined as an annual income of about $8,000 for a family of four. Poverty, a long-standing social problem, hits women with particular force.

According to a 1981 report of the National Advisory Commission on Economic Opportunity, reported in the *Los Angeles Times* in January 1982 (Mall, 1982):

- Two out of every three American adults classified as living in poverty are women.
- Women and children comprise 75 percent of poor people.
- Although only 5 percent of families headed by men are at the poverty level, 25 percent of families headed by women live in poverty. Families headed by women live on 40 percent of the income of those headed by men.
- Up to one-third of the women on welfare work, but cannot earn enough to support their families.
- The average stay on welfare is 18 months. Long-term recipients are a minority.
- If the present trends continue, the poverty population will be composed solely of women and their children by the year 2000.

The report claims that welfare programs designed to get people out of poverty aren't helping women, because they do not address women's problems. For example, when a family breaks up, the usual result is that the man becomes single and the woman becomes the single family head. A study by Arlene F. Saluter of the Census Bureau, reported in the *San Diego Union* in August 1982 disclosed that 90 percent of the children in one-parent families live with their mothers and that 20 percent (12.6 million) of children under 18 in the United States live with only one parent (*San Diego Union*, 1982).

Generally, poor women have marginal jobs; that is, there are usually no fringe benefits. So when the women lose their jobs, they go on welfare. To get out of poverty and dependence on the welfare system, they need job training and support services such as day care for their families. They need training to get jobs in which they can be economically independent. But current publicly funded job training programs tend to keep women in jobs with lower pay, higher unemployment, less overtime, less union protection, and less opportunity for advancement (*Time Magazine*, 1982).

THE ISSUE FOR THE '80S

According to a recent report by the California Commission on the Status of Women (1981), the big issue for the '80s is *comparable worth*. It provides a viable approach to the problem of wage disparity. Comparable worth is

equal pay for jobs of equal value, according to the level of skills, responsibility, effort, and working conditions. Comparable worth differs from the principle of equal pay for equal work stated in the 1963 Equal Pay Act, in that it allows for the comparison of different jobs.

Comparable worth delves into comparisons of pay differentials between "men's" work and "women's" work. These comparisons can be made through a system of job evaluation. Evaluation of jobs to determine wages should be conducted to assess the worth of the job, not the prevailing market wages or other means that perpetuate bias in categorizing wages.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission is currently investigating Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as a legal foundation for developing guidelines for and enforcing comparability. There are, however, some legal experts who disagree that Title VII provides the necessary justification for comparability.

Most of the opposition to comparability relates to economics. The cost of raising women's wages to the median of men's wages would be in the billions. Comparability is a significant and timely vehicle for women to gain equity in the work force, but it will also be the subject of great controversy and debate. It represents a worthy challenge for the '80s.

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SESSION 5: TITLE IX AND BIAS IN LANGUAGE

Student Leader Workshop

GOALS: TO INCREASE KNOWLEDGE OF THE LEGAL ASPECTS OF SEX DISCRIMINATION
TO INCREASE AWARENESS OF SEX BIAS IN LANGUAGE AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

GENERAL BUSINESS — 5

Invite student comments, questions, or concerns in the area of sex equity. Define the term as necessary.

Briefly review the previous session on socialization (especially the school and career areas) in preparation for discussion of the legal remedy, Title IX.

Present Session 5 goals and overview.

OBJECTIVE #1

Students will be able to identify given situations correctly as being sex discriminatory, sex biased, sex fair, or sex affirmative.

TITLE IX: SCOPE AND APPLICATION — 15

Introduce and present the filmstrip/cassette *Title IX and the Schools** or an appropriate alternative.

15

Conduct the Mini-Lecture "Title IX," briefly reviewing major areas and responding to questions. Use the Transparencies to define and give examples of the following terms: *sex discriminatory, sex biased, sex fair,* and *sex affirmative.*

have students form small groups. Distribute the Worksheets "Title IX: Defining the Terms" and "Complying with Title IX--Students," and ask the students to complete them.

*See Resources, p. 13 of the *Coordinator's Guide.*

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

Poster with Session 5 goals and overview

FILMSTRIP/CASSETTE: *Title IX and the Schools*
Projector
Screen
Cassette player

MINI-LECTURE: Title IX

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS:
Overview of General Categories: Title IX
Defining the Terms (A, B, C)

WORKSHEETS:
Title IX: Defining the Terms
Complying with Title IX--Students

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES	5	In the large group, conduct a follow-up discussion and sharing of responses.	
	5	Have those students who are interested in action projects and further exploration complete the Worksheets "Survey of School Practices" and "Survey of School Library." Tell the students to plan to share the results of their surveys during Session 6.	WORKSHEETS: Survey of School Practices; Survey of School Library
		OBJECTIVE #2	
		Participants will rewrite sexist words and line items.	
BIAS IN LANGUAGE: SELECT OPTION	30	Select from the following options:	
		Option 1: Give the slide/tape presentation *Word Power*.	OPTION 1: SLIDE/TAPE PRESENTATION: *Word Power*
		Option 2: Conduct the Mini-Lecture "Bias in Language," using the Transparencies.	OPTION 2: MINI-LECTURE: Bias in Language
ALL OPTIONS	10	Facilitate a large group discussion on language bias.	TRANSPARENCY MASTERS: Societal Values; Literal Interpretation; Inclusive Language; Stereotyping
		Have participants complete the Worksheet "Language: Make It Equitable," and have them share their responses in the large group. If there is not enough time left in this session, have students complete the Worksheet for homework.	WORKSHEET: Language: Make It Equitable
		Preview the next session.	
PROCESS EVALUATION	5	Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."	ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT: Process Evaluation Form

120

MINI-LECTURE: TITLE IX

This Mini-Lecture will provide some background information and give a general scope of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. Also, there is an explanation of key terms dealing with the stages of compliance with the law.

THE LAW

Title IX was passed by Congress, and signed by the President on June 23, 1972. It is a civil rights law prohibiting sex discrimination in education programs and activities receiving federal funds.

The preamble to Title IX states: *No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance.*

SCOPE

The scope of Title IX extends from preschool through graduate school. It protects students, professional staff, and support staff from sex discrimination.

Professional organizations, training programs, research institutes, and so on must also comply with Title IX if they receive federal dollars.

Exemptions: Military and religious schools are exempted if the laws would be inconsistent with the basic religious tenets of those schools.

SUMMARY OF THE FOUR CATEGORIES

1. The first area, General Provisions, states that all education institutions receiving federal funds must:

   - Complete a *self-evaluation* and take appropriate remedial steps to eliminate the effects of discrimination resulting from past policies or practices.

- Choose a *responsible employee* to be the *Title IX Officer*. She or he will coordinate compliance and investigate complaints.

- include a *policy statement* in all publications. No publication should suggest by text or illustration that the recipient treats applicants or employees differently on the basis of sex.

- Give and continue to give *notification of Title IX compliance* to applicants for admission, students, parents, employees, unions, and professional organizations.

- Develop *grievance procedures* for resolution of student and employee complaints.

- File *assurance of Title IX compliance* with the federal government by October 1, 1975.

II. The second area prohibits sex discrimination in Admissions policies and criteria for selection.

III. The third area, Treatment of Students, covers discrimination in:

- housing facilities
- access to courses and activities
- counseling and guidance--tests, materials and practices
- financial aid and scholarships
- health and insurance benefits
- marital or parental status
- athletics

IV. The fourth area deals with employment and prohibits sex discrimination in recruitment, job classifications, fringe benefits, rates of pay, advertising, or pre-employment inquiries.

ENFORCEMENT

The Office for Civil Rights in the Department of Education, Washington, D.C., is responsible for enforcement.

Noncompliance could result in a cutoff of all federal funds to a school district or institution.

UNDERSTANDING THE TERMS

[Use Transparencies 16-19.] Within the context of equal educational opportunity for females and males, practices and behaviors can fall into the following categories:

- Sexist Practices and Behaviors
  - Sex Discriminatory (SD): those specifically prohibited by Title IX.
  - Sex Biased (SB): those that are still discriminatory and may be the subjects of grievances, but are not specifically covered by the Title IX regulation.
- Non-Sexist Practices and Behaviors
  - Sex Fair (SF): those affecting males and females similarly, meeting the letter of the law.
  - Sex Affirmative (SA): those that go beyond sex fair, by attempting to overcome the past effects of discrimination and bias for the affected sex.

OVERVIEW OF GENERAL CATEGORIES: TITLE IX

1. GENERAL PROVISIONS

Self-Evaluation	Notification of Title IX Compliance
Title IX Officer	Grievance Procedures
Policy Statement	Assurance of Title IX Compliance

2. ADMISSIONS POLICIES

3. TREATMENT OF STUDENTS

Housing	Financial Aid
Courses	Health and Insurance
Activities	Marital or Parental Status
Counseling	Athletics

4. EMPLOYMENT

DEFINING THE TERMS (A)

SEXIST

Sex Discriminatory

Sex Biased

NON-SEXIST

Sex Fair

Sex Affirmative

DEFINING THE TERMS (B)

SEX DISCRIMINATORY

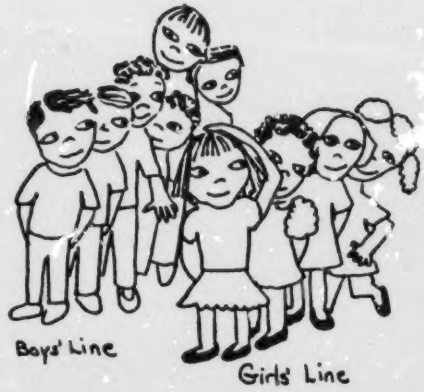
SEX BIASED

SEX FAIR

SEX AFFIRMATIVE

DEFINING THE TERMS (C)

SEX DISCRIMINATORY



SEX BIASED

SEX FAIR

SEX AFFIRMATIVE

TITLE IX: DEFINING THE TERMS

INSTRUCTIONS: Give at least one "in school" and one "outside school" situation showing each of the following types of behavior.

SEX DISCRIMINATORY	SEX BIAS	SEX FAIR	SEX AFFIRMATIVE
SCHOOL:	SCHOOL:	SCHOOL:	SCHOOL:
OUTSIDE:	OUTSIDE:	OUTSIDE:	OUTSIDE:

COMPLYING WITH TITLE IX—STUDENTS

Adapted from materials developed by Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

INSTRUCTIONS: Read each example and decide whether it represents an attitude that is sex discriminatory (SD), sex biased (SB), sex fair (SF), or sex affirmative (SA). Label each example with the correct letters.

PART A

_____1. Teacher to student: "Mary, please don't use the power saw. I'm afraid you'll hurt yourself."

_____2. Teacher greeting students: "Jennie and Mary, how nice you look. Joel, you passed the math test! Bob, your scores are really improving."

_____3. Counselor to student: "John, cooking class is open to anyone."

_____4. Math teacher to female student: "Jean, your math scores are very high. Have you considered engineering? I'll be glad to help you look into it. There are some special programs available for female students."

PART B

_____1. Student government official announcement: School policy requires that boys and girls wear P.E. uniforms that are similar in price and style.

_____2. Student to student: "You know that fight yesterday? Well, Mary was only lectured, but Jim got three days' suspension."

_____3. Student to student: "Don't bother to raise your hand. She never calls on us girls."

_____4. Student to student: "Ms. Miller is holding a special session to tell us how boys can be nurses and medical assistants, and how girls can be fire fighters."

PART C

_____1. Principal to students: "John and Mary--you'll each receive two days' detention for violating the no smoking rule."

_____2. Teacher to student: "John, you can't sign up for cooking class. That's for girls."

_____3. Student to student: "Mr. Brown never notices how well we girls play--he only compliments the boys."

_____4. Counselor to student: "John, you do such fine artwork. Have you considered exploring career opportunities in art?"

PART D

_____1. Assistant superintendent to principal: "In compliance with Title IX, we will include a district policy statement on sex equity in all our publications."

_____2. Student to student: "Mr. Miller encouraged John and later Mary to run for student council president. He thinks they would both do a good job. I never thought about a girl being president instead of secretary."

_____3. Student to student: "Mr. Morris makes all the girls get written papers from employers before he lets them take auto mechanics, but the boys don't have to."

_____4. Student to student: "When John and Mary lost the election, Ms. Proper gave Mary a Kleenex and told John to cut out the crying and 'act like a man.'"

Answer Key

PART A

1. SD
2. SB
3. SF
4. SA

PART B

1. SF
2. SD
3. SB
4. SA

PART C

1. SF
2. SD
3. SB
4. SA

PART D

1. SF
2. SA
3. SD
4. SB

SURVEY OF SCHOOL PRACTICES

Adapted from materials in the *Project Awareness Training Manual*, Olympia, Washington, Public Schools.

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the following questions and relate them to what you see going on in your school. Check yes or no and be ready to discuss your answers.

		YES	NO
1.	In your school are females expected to act "like girls" and males "like boys"? (Are females being prepared for roles as traditional women? Males as traditional men?)	____	____
2. a)	Do females tend to take certain courses and males other courses?	____	____
b)	Does a female in an auto mechanics course get hassled by other students?	____	____
c)	If a male takes a sewing course, is he ridiculed?	____	____
3. a)	Do teachers and counselors inform both sexes of a wide range of work possibilities?	____	____
b)	Are both sexes channeled into traditional vocational courses and job plans?	____	____
4.	Do teachers ask females to help with "housekeeping" chores such as watering the plants and dusting, and males to help with "manly" chores such as carrying boxes and operating the movie projector?	____	____

5. a) Are both sexes encouraged to participate in sports, and do they have equal opportunities, facilities, and equipment? a) ___ ___
   b) Are male sports more highly regarded? b) ___ ___
   c) Are females always the cheerleaders and boys the players? c) ___ ___

6. a) Are both sexes encouraged to participate in a wide variety of clubs, or do females cluster in some clubs and males in others? a) ___ ___
   b) Do females and males equally serve as presidents of clubs? Are females expected to be secretary? (Give a general answer, but be able to give specific examples.) b) ___ ___

7. a) Are females, particularly at the high school level, expected to be "helpless" or incompetent? a) ___ ___
   b) Are they reluctant to reveal their skills, strengths, and intelligence? b) ___ ___

8. Are males and females of ethnic minority groups expected to behave differently from white females and males? ___ ___

Review the above questions and answer the following: What are the areas in which your school needs improvement? _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

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SURVEY OF SCHOOL LIBRARY

Adapted from materials in the *Project Awareness Training Manual*, Olympia, Washington, Public Schools.

INSTRUCTIONS: Answer the following questions by making a site check of your library or learning center. The librarian can help you find the answers.

	YES	NO
1. Are books and/or library sections designated <u>for males</u> or <u>for females</u>?	___	___
2. Does the library include materials that discuss psychology, sociology, economics, political science, and history from female viewpoints?	___	___
3. Does the library include a significant number of biographies and autobiographies about and by women from a variety of racial and cultural groups?	___	___
4. Does the library include materials that portray women favorably in roles other than wife, mother, homemaker, nurse, teacher, and other traditionally female occupations?	___	___
5. Does the library include materials that portray men favorably in roles that include husband, father, homemaker, nursery school teacher, nurse, and other non-traditional occupations?	___	___
6. Does the library display include female subjects and multiethnic concerns?	___	___

YES NO

7. Do the library displays depict culturally and ethnically diverse women and men in a wide variety of activities, including child care, housework, and jobs that tend to be viewed as "men's work" or "women's work"? ____ ____

8. a) Do materials on job choices and occupations offer a wide variety of options for both males and females? a) ____ ____
   b) Do they suggest that certain jobs are <u>for females</u> and others <u>for males</u>? b) ____ ____

9. Do procedures and criteria for selecting library materials include evaluation for sexism and racism (check with librarian)? ____ ____

Review the above questions and answer the following:

a. In what areas does the library need improvement? _____

_____

_____

b. In what areas is the library in compliance with the spirit of Title IX?

_____

_____

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MINI-LECTURE: BIAS IN LANGUAGE

This Mini-Lecture addresses the importance of language, as well as specific areas of language usage that are considered in the workshop activities.

SOCIETAL VALUES

Our language both *teaches* and *reflects* societal *values*. [Use the Transparency "Societal Values" to illustrate.] As a specific example, consider the words *bachelor* and *spinster*. Children learn that in one sex, singleness is valued, while in the other, value is lost.

The societal values of the 1700s are reflected in the language of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence. These documents use the pseudo-generic* *man*, which meant only white, property-owning males. This interpretation is still used by the courts. The 14th and 15th Amendments, for minority males, and the 20th Amendment, for women, were necessary to give these groups the right to vote.

The language we use reflects our *culture* and thereby shapes our *thoughts*. But this shaping is not one-way. Language changes as the individuals in the culture alter and expand their values and knowledge. WE CAN HAVE AN EFFECT. The word *Black* instead of *Negro* is an example of rapid change in word usage that reflects changing attitudes--attitudes changed via vigorous civil rights activities and increased Black pride.

LITERAL UNDERSTANDING

[Use the Transparency "Literal Interpretation" to illustrate.] Children, as well as adults, have a *literal* understanding of language. When we hear the word *policeman*, we visualize a *man*. *Man-hours* means that *men* are working, not women. The Drake University study abstracted in your Reading showed that college students visualized males when the pseudo-generic *man*

*Generic refers to all members of a class or group.

was used, and that when truly generic words like *people* were used, significantly more female images were included.

INCLUSIVE LANGUAGE

[Use the Transparency "Inclusive Language" to illustrate.] Related to our literal understanding of language is the use of *inclusive language*. Expressions such as "man-hours," "men of science," and "man invents the wheel" exclude and omit the contributions and participation of females. *Sex-inclusive* or *sex-fair* language includes *all* relevant people. For example, if *humans* invented the wheel, females may then be visualized as part of this group. A book titled *Famous Scientists* instead of *Men of Science* will more likely be thought to include mention of the Nobel Prize-winning physicist Maria Goepper Mayer.

STEREOTYPED LANGUAGE

[Use the Transparency "Stereotyping" to illustrate.] *Stereotyped language* includes *limited assumptions* about how a male or female can be. "The nurse . . . she" and "act like a man" are examples. The assumptions here are that men are not nurses, or that men must not show their feelings. *Stereotyping* occurs as a *pattern of assumptions*. Children perceive these patterns and limit their behaviors and aspirations accordingly.

The stereotype of the female as less important than the male must also be considered, since both girls and boys learn to devalue females through demeaning or belittling language. Examples of this will be found in the Worksheet we will be doing. *Sissy* is an example of language that demeans males, but note that the insult has to do with being "like a woman."

SUMMARY

Since children learn about societal values and society's expectations for them through the language used by adults, it is important for us, as people involved in the schools, to examine our language and to see that we are *expanding options* and not inadvertently limiting them.

Societal Values

Bachelor

Literal Interpretation

Inclusive Language

Stereotyping

WORKSHEET 9

LANGUAGE: MAKE IT EQUITABLE

Adapted from materials developed by Margaret Budd and Myrra Lee for the San Diego Unified School District.

I. INCLUSIVE LANGUAGE

A. *INSTRUCTIONS: Rewrite the following examples so that they are non-sexist and inclusive.*

1. early man *early people*
2. Neanderthal man _____
3. cavemen _____
4. congressman _____
5. fireman _____
6. When man invented the wheel _____
7. policeman _____
8. man-made _____
9. chairman _____
10. housewife _____
11. motherhood _____
12. History of the Black Man in America _____

B. *INSTRUCTIONS: Rewrite these sentences (quoted from career materials) so they include both sexes.*

1. How does the postman get his job? *How do postal carriers get their jobs?* _____

2. Select the owner of a business and make pictures for the bulletin board of the people he must pay and the materials he must purchase._____

3. The secretary who does not make the most of her physical attributes is not doing herself justice._____

4. The social worker concentrated her skills in family practice._____

5. Have students find out where their fathers work._____

II. STEREOTYPING AND DEMEANING LANGUAGE

INSTRUCTIONS: Rewrite the underlined words to make them equal or parallel for men and women.

1. the fair sex; the weaker sex — *women; females*
2. girls in the office/men in the office
3. man and wife
4. old maid, bachelor
5. career man; career girl
6. The works of Hemingway, Steinbeck and Miss Buck were widely read._____

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7. Mr. McAllister runs the garage in partnership with his wife, a striking blonde, who mans the pump. _____

_____

8. sissy, tomboy _____

III. STEREOTYPING IN TEXTBOOKS

INSTRUCTIONS: Rewrite the examples so that stereotypes about men and women are not reinforced.

1. the founding fathers *the founders*

2. Pioneers moved West, taking their wives and children with them.

_____

_____

3. In New England, the typical farm was so small that the owner and his sons could take care of it by themselves.

_____

_____

4. Al listened tolerantly to the ladies' chatter. _____

_____

5. Math problem: Susie bought a doll for $3.68, and Billy bought a toy truck for $3.50. How much more did Susie pay? _____

_____

WORKSHEET ANSWER KEY

Language: Make It Equitable

The following are suggested answers, and are not meant to be definitive.

I. A.
2. people, humans
3. cave dwellers
4. members of Congress
5. fire fighter
6. humans
7. police officer
8. synthetic, artificial, handmade
9. the chair, chairperson
10. homemaker
11. parenthood
12. Black History

B.
2. people who must be paid, etc.
3. Make it plural; change "attributes" to "appearance."
4. Delete the pronoun "her."
5. Change "fathers" to "parents."

II.
2. women
3. man and woman, or husband and wife
4. single woman
5. woman
6. Delete "Miss" for parallel usage.
7. Mr. and Mrs. McAllister run the garage as partners.
8. sensitive

III.
2. Pioneer families moved West.
3. the family could take care
4. Judy listened tolerantly to the men's chatter.
5. Change or reverse the toys--let Susie buy stamps and Billy a teddy bear.

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SESSION 6: ANDROGYNY

Student Leader Workshop

GOALS: TO UNDERSTAND THE CONCEPT OF ANDROGYNY AND ITS IMPLICATIONS

GENERAL BUSINESS **5**

Review the last session and homework, and respond to questions.

Present Session 6 goals and overview.

large group

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

Poster with Session 6 goals and overview

OBJECTIVE #1

Students will identify qualities that describe an ideal person.

ANDROGYNY SCALE **20**

Introduce and define androgyny as follows:

(a) Androgyny expands the range of behaviors available and acceptable to females and males (Bem 1974).

(b) The word androgyny is from the Greek roots andr- and gyne, meaning male and female, indicating a balanced expression of "masculine" and "feminine" traits to allow each sex the full range of human characteristics needed for individual actualization.

worksheet

WORKSHEET: Androgyny Scale for Students

Distribute the Worksheet "Androgyny Scale for Students." Point out that this is a self-analysis--there's no pass or fail, no right or wrong, and papers will not be collected. Have students complete the Worksheet.

Have participants score their own tests by adding the numbers in Column I, then in Column II, and comparing the two scores. Tell students, *"If there is a difference of more than ten points, your personality (as you see it) is weighted predominantly in either the male (Column I) or the female (Column II) stereotype."*

30 Conduct a discussion, asking students the following questions:

- *To what extent do you think that the traits in Column I make up a stereotype of what is expected of boys? Column II of what is expected of girls?*
- *How influenced are you by the typical American sex-role stereotypes we were taught to believe at a very early age?*
- *In what ways are these stereotypes changing?*
- *Is there a real reason why any of these characteristics should be labeled "masculine" of "feminine"?*
- *Do most people have some characteristics from each column?*
- *What problems might you encounter if you were predominantly sweet, gentle, tender, sensitive? What if you were mainly aggressive, dominant, and competitive?*
- *Create a dream personality. List the ten qualities you think would make an ideal person. Do you know anyone like this?*

Post the answers on the chalkboard.

Note: Be ready to discuss all aspects of sexuality and sexual preference; if students' concerns indicate a need, introduce the issue. In a senior high class, remarks about homosexuality may well be forthcoming, and you should point out that homosexuality is a sexual preference, not a personality trait. Take care to communicate that sexual preference is not a function of preferring stereotypically masculine or feminine activities. Focus the discussion on the idea that a person who has a good balance of personality traits may get along better in the world than a person whose makeup is predominantly described by one column or another on the Worksheet.

REPORT ON FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES

25 Have the students who did the Follow-Up Activities from Session 5 report the results of their surveys (from the Worksheets "Survey of School Practices" and "Survey of School Library").

HOMEWORK	5	Distribute the Worksheet "Change: Ideas for Your School," and explain the assignment to students. Distribute the Reading "Notes to a Change Agent." Preview the next session.	 WORKSHEET: Change: Ideas for Your School READING: Notes to a Change Agent
PROCESS EVALUATION	5	Conduct a process evaluation, using the "Process Evaluation Form."	 ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT: Process Evaluation Form

ANDROGYNY SCALE FOR STUDENTS

Adapted from *Becoming Sex Fair*, a WEEA project developed by the Tredyffrin/Easttown School District, Berwyn, Pennsylvania.

INSTRUCTIONS: Using the following numbers, score yourself 1, 2, 3, or 4 for each of the twenty adjectives describing personality. Then add up your Column I score and then your Column II score. Find the difference.

1. *Usually not or rarely*
2. *Occasionally or sometimes*
3. *Often or usually*
4. *Quite often or very much*

COLUMN I	COLUMN II
_____a. aggressive (bold, pushy)	_____a. affectionate (loving)
_____b. ambitious (wanting to succeed)	_____b. compassionate (caring)
_____c. assertive (speaking out)	_____c. gentle (considerate)
_____d. athletic (physically active)	_____d. loving children
_____e. competitive ("win-lose")	_____e. loyal (sticking to your friends or being a good friend)
_____f. dominant (controlling)	_____f. sensitive to others
_____g. forceful	_____g. sympathetic

_____h.	independent	_____h. tender
_____i.	self-reliant (solving your own problems)	_____i. understandin
_____j.	will take a stand	_____j. warm

WORKSHEET 11

CHANGE: IDEAS FOR YOUR SCHOOL

INSTRUCTIONS: In each category below, list at least one thing that you can do to make people more aware of sexism.

- Home: _____

  _____

  _____

- Personal relationships: _____

  _____

  _____

- School: _____

  _____

  _____

- Sports, activities, jobs: _____

  _____

  _____

Consider these additional ways to raise awareness about sexism. You can do these for a class project, write about the results for a composition, or present them in one of your classes (drama, speech, sociology, history, psychology, vocational education, or other related subjects).

1. Hold a Most Sexist Ad of the Year Contest. Have all students bring an ad to be judged by a panel of students from this workshop.

2. Interview ten or more adults to see why they chose their careers. Analyze their responses to see if their choices were based on sex-role expectations.

3. Interview two or three people who have non-traditional jobs or roles (women in politics, law, or medicine; men in nursing or child rearing; etc.). What advantages do these people have? What problems do they face? What do other people think of them? What do they think of themselves?

4. Record for one week which jobs are done by males and which are done by females in your home. Analyze your findings and discuss them with your family.

5. Write a short paper describing what you think your life will be like when you are 30 years old. Describe your job, your family, and your home. Compare your ideas with some of your friends' ideas.

NOTES TO A CHANGE AGENT

This Reading was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INTRODUCTION

Change may be defined as any significant alteration in the current state of affairs for an individual, a group, or an organization.

In the natural processes of growth and maturation, and with the passage of time, all things inevitably change. But people are often resistant to change, and apathy is a common form of resistance. We feel more comfortable with the status quo, or the situation as we know it, and feel uneasy with the unknown, which would come with change.

Change may be considered a challenge to one's present situation, which for some individuals is a stimulating experience. For others change causes uneasiness, as new, unknown behavior may be called for. Fear of change can encompass fears that relate to failure, the unknown, giving up the familiar, and diminished power or control.

In attempting to bring about change, it's important to remember that change in one part of a system causes changes in other parts of the system, which may not be anticipated or controlled. Many small changes added together result in real change.

ROLE OF THE CHANGE AGENT

A change agent, or one who is seeking change in a system or an organization, must be sensitive to other people's sense of being threatened or feeling uncertain. Two ways of responding effectively to others' fear are to provide information and to offer understanding and empathy.

According to Ronald Ellis in *The Change Agent's Guide to Innovative Education* (1973), the change agent can function in any or all of at least four primary ways. These include the following roles:

- Catalyst
- Solution giver
- Process helper
- Resource linker

Catalyst The catalyst works at helping the group overcome its inertia and actually paves the way for change by lessening people's resistance to it. In education today, this role can be taken by parents, students, staff, or school board members who are concerned with the present workings of a school system. These individuals or groups do not necessarily have the answers, but they are dissatisfied with the way things are. They can energize the problem-solving process by voicing their dissatisfaction.

Solution Giver The solution giver has definite ideas about what changes ought to take place. Although the right solutions are of central importance, another factor in any change process is timing. The solution giver must know *when* and *how* to offer the solutions so that they can be implemented effectively.

Process Helper The process helper is the key role of the change agent. This person can assist in numerous ways, for example:

- Facilitating recognition and definition of needs by the group.
- Assisting the group in setting objectives for change.
- Showing the group how to find resources.
- Helping the group select or create solutions.
- Aiding the implementation of these solutions.

- Assisting in evaluation of the process and checking to see that needs are met adequately.

Resource Linker

The resource linker has the job of bringing together all the necessary ingredients to support the desired change. Resources might include financial backing; identifying and procuring people with time, motivation, and needed skills; and expertise in the process of change itself. A person who can link resources and needs both inside and outside the system in question is truly valuable in any change process.

One really needs to be able to assess one's own skills to be able to work effectively for change within a system or organization. One must be able to tap the resources of any group to help facilitate the desired change. Active listening is necessary, to find the talents, motivations, and interests of individual members, and to find the sources of resistance in the group.

REACTIONS TO CHANGE

People will not respond well if they are told that they must change. Therefore, an effective change agent will attempt to gain a trusting and cooperative working relationship with the group in question. If the group includes a few key people in positions of power, their support should be gained. Then the process can begin at various levels.

The types of reactions a change agent might find to proposed changes vary. However, the following stages describe human reactions that are a normal part of the learning or change process:

- Shock or surprise--"What?" (reacting strongly to any significant challenge to our perception)
- Disbelief--"Ah, come on, that doesn't happen to me (them)." (active disbelief and resistance to new information)
- Guilt--"Oh, I did *that*?" (feeling inadequate or guilty for past and present actions)
- Projection--"This lousy system, etc." (projecting one's guilt onto other persons and/or circumstances, blaming them)

- Rationalization--"It's the result of our cultural heritage." (a form of resistance that aims to explain and/or excuse behaviors)
- Intellectualization--"Let me think about it for a while." (may be resistance or the beginning of problem solving)
- Acceptance (admission that new behavior and perceptions are necessary for personal and organizational growth)
- Integration and action (incorporation of new awareness and knowledge into behavior and action)

These are not always clear-cut stages; they may overlap or be experienced in a different sequence, or they may not occur at all.

CHANGE PLANNING

It is important to remember that in teaching people *how* to change, you must provide not only cognitive information concerning *why* change is necessary, but also motivational influences or payoffs that are *emotionally satisfying*. Our knowledge that change is needed, for whatever reasons we can think of, is not sufficient to cause people to go through the uncertainty and risks that come with change. Motivational supports for each group affected must be ascertained.

The change agent needs a personal power base in order to be effective. This includes a support group, the ability to be assertive, knowledge of the subject area, and commitment to the task at hand.

A good change plan requires a systematic approach, with careful thought and planning. It could include the following steps:

- Identify the problem.
- Develop a plan.
- Do your homework.
- Implement your plan.
- Evaluate and follow up.

REFERENCES

Ellis, Ronald G. The Change Agent's Guide to Innovative Education. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Education Technology, 1973.

Kaser, Joyce; Matthews, Martha; and McCune, Shirley. Implementing Title IX and Attaining Sex Equity in Education. Washington, D.C.: Resource Center for Sex Roles in Education, 1977.

SESSION 7: STUDENT AS CATALYST FOR CHANGE

Student Leader Workshop

GOALS: TO UNDERSTAND CHANGE PROCESSES AS THEY RELATE TO SCHOOL AND PERSONAL LIFE

TO DEVELOP AWARENESS OF THE ROLES OF CHANGE AGENTS

TO DEVELOP A VIABLE ACTION PLAN

GENERAL BUSINESS 5

Invite comments and questions from the previous session.

Present Session 7 goals and overview.

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

Poster with Session 7 goals and overview

OBJECTIVE #1

Participants will identify principal stages of change and the roles of change agents.

ELEMENTS OF CHANGE 15

Conduct the Mini-Lecture, "Elements of Change," using the Transparency and reviewing points that are of interest to students.

Facilitate a brief question-and-discussion period with the large group, having participants identify stages of change and their change roles as students.

MINI-LECTURE: Elements of Change

TRANSPARENCY MASTER:

Roles of a Change Agent/ Reactions to Change

OBJECTIVE #2

Participants will identify areas in which they can take steps to promote sex equity.

CHANGE AGENT 15

Using ideas from the Worksheet "Change: Ideas for Your School" (Session 6 homework), discuss issues related to change in the school and ways participants can become involved and committed to sex equity. Have each student identify an area for action planning.

PLANNING FOR ACTION — 45 minutes

Using force-field analysis, participants will design the elements of an action plan to promote sex equity in their school.

Introduce force-field analysis action planning to the students, relating the concept to the students' areas of interest. Distribute the Worksheet "A Guide to Action: Force-Field Analysis."

In small groups, have students do Step Two, Part A, of the Worksheet. Then, in the large group, have students proceed with the Worksheet according to the procedures outlined on it.

WORKSHEET: A Guide to Action: Force-Field Analysis

ASSESSMENT (optional posttesting) — 15 minutes

Administer posttests, if desired, adjusting workshop times accordingly. Use the Assessment Instruments What Do You Know About Sex Equity? Adult Rating Scale, and Person-Concept Incongruency Scale, located in Session 1. Arrange to share the results with the students.

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS: What Do You Know About Sex Equity?

Adult Rating Scale

WORKSHOP EVALUATION AND WRAP-UP — 10 minutes

Conduct an evaluation of the workshop, using the "Final Assessment" form. Have students discuss and rate the activities and sessions, identifying what they liked best and least, and summing up what the workshop experience has meant to them individually.

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT: Final Assessment

MINI-LECTURE: ELEMENTS OF CHANGE

This Mini-Lecture provides information on the change process, reactions to change, and the roles of a change agent.

DEFINING CHANGE

Change may be defined as any significant alteration in the current state of affairs for an individual, a group, or an organization. Change is inevitable as part of the natural process of growth and maturation. People are generally more comfortable with the status quo, for change entails risk as well as challenge.

SENSITIVITY: THE KEY

Fear of change can encompass fears of failure, of the unknown, of giving up familiar satisfactions, and of diminished power or control.

It is important to remember that change in one part of a system produces change in other parts. Many small changes added together result in real change.

A *change agent* must be sensitive to other people's sense of being threatened or uncertain. Two ways of responding effectively to others' fear are to provide information and to offer understanding and empathy.

ROLES OF A CHANGE AGENT

[Use the Transparency "Roles of a Change Agent/Reactions to Change."]
A change agent can function in any or all of at least four primary ways. These include a *catalyst*, who helps initiate change; a *solution giver*, who has definite ideas regarding what changes ought to take place; a *process helper*, who plays a key role in facilitating problem solving by the group; and a *resource linker*, who brings together necessary ingredients to support the desired change.

BUILDING POSITIVE RELATIONSHIPS

To work effectively within any system, a change agent must assess personal skills and tap the resources of the group. An effective change agent attempts to gain a trusting, cooperative relationship with the group. People will not change if they're told to change.

A change agent needs a personal power base that includes a *support group*, *assertiveness*, *knowledge*, and *commitment* to the task at hand.

REACTIONS TO CHANGE

Reactions to change vary. The following stages of reactions usually accompany a change or learning process. They are not always clear-cut, they may overlap, they may appear in a different sequence, or they may not occur at all. [Refer again to the Transparency.]

- *Shock* or *surprise*--strong reaction to any significant challenge to perception
- *Disbelief*--active disbelief and resistance to new information
- *Guilt*--feeling of inadequacy or guilt for past and present actions
- *Projection*--projecting one's own guilt onto other persons and/or circumstances, blaming them
- *Rationalization*--a form of resistance that aims to explain and/or excuse behaviors
- *Intellectualization*--resistance, *or* the beginning of problem solving
- *Acceptance*--admission that new behavior and perceptions are necessary for personal and organizational growth
- *Integration* and *action*--incorporation of new awareness and knowledge into behavior and action

SYSTEMATIC APPROACH

A good change plan requires a systematic approach, which might include:

- Step 1--Identifying the problem
- Step 2--Developing a plan
- Step 3--Doing your homework
- Step 4--Implementing the plan
- Step 5--Evaluating and following up on the plan

REACTIONS TO CHANGE

CATALYST	Helps initiate change
SOLUTION GIVER	Has definite ideas regarding what changes ought to take place
PROCESS HELPER	Plays a key role to facilitate problem solving by the group
RESOURCE LINKER	Brings together necessary ingredients to support the desired change

ROLES OF A CHANGE AGENT

SHOCK or SURPRISE	Strong reaction to any significant challenge to perception
DISBELIEF	Active disbelief and resistance to new information
GUILT	Feeling of inadequacy or guilt for past and present actions
PROJECTION	Projection of one's own guilt onto other persons and/or circumstances, blaming them
RATIONALIZATION	A form of resistance that aims to explain and/or excuse behaviors
INTELLECTUALIZATION	Resistance, *or* the beginning of problem solving
ACCEPTANCE	Admission that new behavior and perceptions are necessary for personal and organizational growth
INTEGRATION and ACTION	Incorporation of new awareness and knowledge into behavior and action

A GUIDE TO ACTION: FORCE-FIELD ANALYSIS

Adapted from materials developed by Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

The systematic approach in this action guide will help you clarify the "what" and "how" of your change efforts.

Step 1:	IDENTIFY THE PROBLEM	a. Assess your interests. b. Collect information. c. Find out who's interested.
Step 2:	DEVELOP A PLAN (force-field analysis)	a. Formulate your change goal(s). b. Analyze the forces for and against change. c. Identify possible actions/strategies. d. Select action steps. e. Develop timeline and assign responsibilities.
Step 3:	DO YOUR HOMEWORK	a. Prepare for the specified actions. b. See the right people. c. Involve relevant groups. d. Continue to collect information. e. Continue to assess your plan. f. Make necessary modifications/adaptations.
Step 4:	IMPLEMENT YOUR PLAN	a. Carry out specified actions. b. Adapt plan if necessary.
Step 5:	EVALUATE AND FOLLOW UP	a. Assess the outcome of your actions. b. Identify necessary follow-up steps. c. Determine the goals for the next session.

A GUIDE TO ACTION

INSTRUCTIONS: Use this worksheet to complete Step 2: DEVELOP A PLAN, a-e (force-field analysis).

FORMULATE YOUR CHANGE GOALS

What is the goal of your action efforts--what change do you wish your schools to implement? Consider the following questions:

What change do you wish to make?
Whom do you want to change?
How will you bring about the change?
When will the change be accomplished?
Where will the change be accomplished?

Now write a goal statement that includes the answers to the foregoing questions.

ANALYZE THE FORCES FOR AND AGAINST CHANGE

What are the major forces that can support the change (driving forces) or inhibit the change (restraining forces)?

DRIVING FORCES	RESTRAINING FORCES

Questions that may assist you in the identification of forces include:

Who will be involved in or affected by the change? How will they perceive it? How will they react to it?
Who will support change efforts? How will they show it?
Who will oppose changes? How will they show it?

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IDENTIFY POSSIBLE ACTIONS/STRATEGIES

List possible actions and strategies and consider the consequences of employing each.

ACTION STEP	CONSEQUENCES

SELECT ACTION STEPS

After evaluating the action steps, list the major ones you are going to implement, making sure they have a good chance for success.

MAJOR ACTION STEPS

DEVELOP TIMELINES AND ASSIGN RESPONSIBILITIES

List the action steps you will utilize to achieve your goals, the individual or group responsible for each, and the timetable for completion of each.

ACTION	PERSON(S) RESPONSIBLE	DATE TO BE COMPLETED

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ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT 5

FINAL ASSESSMENT

This Assessment Instrument was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INSTRUCTIONS: At the conclusion of the workshop, use this form to assess each session.

Place the appropriate number from the scale at right in each box below and specify the reasons for your response:

Effective 1 2 3 4 5 Not Effective

ORGANIZATION Why?_____

_____

CONTENT Why?_____

_____

AUDIOVISUAL PRESENTATIONS Why?_____

_____

WORKSHEETS; ACTIVITY CARDS

Most Valuable_____

Why?_____

READINGS

Most Valuable_____

Why?_____

What specific changes would you make in this session? For example, what information or activities would you expand, delete, or add?

_____

_____

_____

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_____

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